Learning-assisted Automated Reasoning with **Flyspeck**

Cezary Kaliszyk · Josef Urban

the date of receipt and acceptance should be inserted later

Abstract The considerable mathematical knowledge encoded by the Flyspeck project is combined with external automated theorem provers (ATPs) and machine-learning premise selection methods trained on the proofs, producing an AI system capable of answering a wide range of mathematical queries automatically. The performance of this architecture is evaluated in a bootstrapping scenario emulating the development of Flyspeck from axioms to the last theorem, each time using only the previous theorems and proofs. It is shown that 39% of the 14185 theorems could be proved in a push-button mode (without any high-level advice and user interaction) in 30 seconds of real time on a fourteen-CPU workstation.

The necessary work involves: (i) an implementation of sound translations of the HOL Light logic to ATP formalisms: untyped first-order, polymorphic typed first-order, and typed higher-order, (ii) export of the dependency information from HOL Light and ATP proofs for the machine learners, and (iii) choice of suitable representations and methods for learning from previous proofs, and their integration as advisors with HOL Light. This work is described and discussed here, and an initial analysis of the body of proofs that were found fully automatically is provided.

Cezary Kaliszyk
University of Innsbruck, Austria

Josef Urban
Radboud University, Nijmegen

1 Introduction and Motivation

"It is the view of some of us that many people who could have easily contributed to project QED have been distracted away by the enticing lure of AI or AR."
<div align="right">– The QED Manifesto</div>

"So it will take 140 man-years to create a good basic library for formal mathematics."
<div align="right">– Freek Wiedijk [76]</div>

"We will encourage you to develop the three great virtues of a programmer: laziness, impatience, and hubris."
<div align="right">– Larry Wall, Programming Perl [73]</div>

"And in demonstration itself logic is not all. The true mathematical reasoning is a real induction [...]"
<div align="right">– Henri Poincaré, Science and Method [56]</div>

1.1 Large-theory Automated Reasoning and HOL Light

Use of external first-order ATPs like Vampire [59], E [61], SPASS [75], and recently also SMT solvers like Z3 [24] for ITP-based (large-theory) formalization has been developed considerably in the recent decade. Particularly in the Isabelle community, the Isabelle/Sledgehammer [15,14] bridge to such external tools is getting increasingly popular. This helps to further develop various parts of the technology involved. ATPs have recently gained the ability to quickly load large theories over large signatures and work with them [35]. Methods for automated selection of relevant knowledge and for proof guidance are actively developed [67], together with specialized automated systems targeted at particular mathematical domains [2,57, 8]. Formats and translation methods handling more formalization-friendly foundations are being defined [62,28,16], and metasystems that decide which ATP, translation method, strategy, parallelization, and premises to use to solve a given problem with limited resources are being designed [52,70]. Cooperation of humans and computers over large corpora of formal knowledge is an interesting field, allowing exploration of new AI systems and combinations of different AI techniques that can attempt to encode concepts like analogy and intuition, and rigorously evaluate their usefulness. Perhaps not only Hilbert and Turing, but also the formality-opposing and intuition-oriented Poincaré[1] [56] would have been interested to learn about the new "semantic AI paradise" of such large corpora of fully computer-understandable mathematics (from which we do not intend to be expelled).

The HOL Light [32] system is probably the first among the existing well-known ITPs which has integrated and extensively used a general ATP procedure, the MESON tactic [34]. Hurd has developed and benchmarked early bridges [36,37] between HOL and external systems, and his Metis system [38] has also become a significant part of the Isabelle/Sledgehammer bridge to ATPs [53]. Using the very

---

[1] 2012 is not just the year of Turing [31], but also of Poincaré, whose ideas about creativity and invention involving random, intuition-guided exploration confirmed by critical evaluation quite correspond to what AI systems like MaLARea [70] try to emulate in large formal theories.

detailed Otter/Ivy [48] proof objects, Harrison also later implemented a bridge from HOL Light to Prover9 [47]. HOL Light however does not yet have a general bridge to large-theory ATP/AI methods, similar to Isabelle/Sledgehammer or MizAR [68, 69], which would attempt to automatically solve a new goal by selecting relevant knowledge from the large library and running (possibly customized/trained) external ATPs on such premise selections. HOL Light seems to be a natural candidate for adopting such methods, because of the amount of work already done in this direction mentioned above, and also thanks to HOL Light's foundational closeness to Isabelle/HOL. Also, thanks to the Flyspeck project [30], HOL Light is becoming less of a "single, very knowledgable formalizer" tool, and is getting increasingly used as a "tool for interested mathematicians" (particularly Vietnamese[2]) who may know the large libraries much less and have less experience with crafting their own proof tactics. For such ITP users it is good to provide a small number of strong methods that allow fast progress, which can perhaps also complement the declarative modes [77] pioneered by HOL Light [33] in the LCF world.

1.2 Flyspeck as an Interesting Corpus for Semantic AI Methods

The Flyspeck development (which in this paper always means also the required parts of the HOL Light library) is an interesting corpus for a number of reasons. First, it formalizes considerable parts of standard mathematics, and thus exposes a large body of interconnected mathematical reasoning to all kinds of semantic AI methods and experiments. Second, the formalization is done in a relatively directed way, with the final goal of the Kepler conjecture in mind. For example in the Mizar library (and even more in other collections like the Coq contribs), articles may be contributed as isolated developments, and only much later (or never) re-factored into a form that makes them work well with related developments. Such refactoring is often a nontrivial process [60]. In a directed developments like Flyspeck, such integrity is a concern from the very beginning, and this concern should result in the theorems working better together to justify new conjectures that combine the areas covered by the development. Third, the language of HOL Light is simpler than the language of Mizar and Coq (and to a lesser extent also than Isabelle/HOL), where one typically first needs to set up the right syntactic/type-automation environment to be able to formulate new conjectures in advanced areas. This greater simplicity (which comes at a cost) makes it possible to write direct (yet advanced) queries to the AI/ATP ("hammer"[3]) system in the original language, without much additional need for specifying the context of the query. This could make such "hammer" more easy to try for interested mathematicians, and allow them to explore formal mathematics and Flyspeck. And fourth, Flyspeck is accompanied with an informal (LATEX) text that is often cross-linked to the formal concepts and theorems developed in HOL Light. With sufficiently strong automated reasoning over the library, this cross-linking opens the way to experiments with alignment (and eventual semi-automated translation) between the informal and formal Flyspeck texts, using corpus-driven methods for language translation, assisted by such AI/ATP "hammer" as an additional semantic filter/advisor.

---

[2] `http://weyl.math.pitt.edu/hanoi2009/Participants/`
[3] Larry Paulson is guilty of introducing this "striking" terminology.

1.3 The Rest of the Paper

The work reported here makes several steps towards the above goals:

1. Sound and efficient translations of the HOL Light formulas to several ATP (TPTP) formalisms are implemented (Section 2). This includes the untyped first-order (FOF) format [63], polymorphic typed first-order (TFF1) format [16], and typed higher-order (THF) format [28].
2. Dependency information is exported from the HOL Light proofs (Section 3). This allows experiments with re-proving of theorems by ATPs from their HOL Light dependencies, and provides an initial dataset for machine learning of premise selection from previous proofs.
3. Several feature representations of HOL Light formulas are implemented and used for learning premise selection. Several preprocessing methods are developed for the dependency data that are used for learning. The trained premise-selection systems are integrated as external advisors for HOL Light. A prototype system answering real-time mathematical queries by running various parallel combinations of the premise selectors and ATPs is built and made available as an online service. See Section 4.

The methods are evaluated in Section 5, and it is shown that by running in parallel the most complementary proof-producing methods on a 14-CPU workstation, one now has a 39% chance to prove the next Flyspeck theorem within 30 seconds in a fully automated push-button mode (without any high-level advice). 50% of the Flyspeck theorems can be re-proved within 30 seconds by a collection of 7 ATP methods (run in parallel) if the HOL Light proof dependencies are used. 56% of the theorems could be proved by the union of all methods tried in the evaluation. An initial analysis of these sets of proofs is given in Section 6. It is shown that the proofs produced by the learning-advised ATPs can occasionally develop ideas that are very different from the original HOL Light proofs, and that the learning-advised ATPs can sometimes produce simpler proofs and discover duplications in the library. Section 7 discusses related work and Section 8 suggests future directions.

2 Translation of HOL Light Formulas to ATP formats

The HOL logic differs from the formalisms used by most of the existing ATP and SMT systems. The main difference to first order logic are the use of the (polymorphic) type system, and higher-order features (guarded by the type system) like quantification (abstraction) over the higher-order objects and currying. On the other hand, the logic is made classical and comes with a straightforward intended interpretation in ZFC. Translation of this logic (and its type-class extension used by Isabelle/HOL) to ATP formalisms has been an active research topic started already in the 90s, and the main techniques (like lambda lifting, suitable type system translation methods, etc.) have been described several times. Therefore this section assumes the knowledge of these techniques, and only briefly summarizes the logic and the translation approaches considered, and their particular suitability for the experiments over the HOL Light corpora. For a comprehensive recent overview and discussion of this topic and the issues related to the translation see Blanchette's thesis [13].

2.1 Summary of the HOL Logic

HOL Light uses the *HOL logic* [55]: an extended variant of Church's simple type
theory [21]. Type variables (implicitly universally quantified) are explicitly added
to the language (providing polymorphism), together with arbitrary type operators
(constructors of compound types like `'int list'` and `'a set'`). In the HOL logic,
the terms and types are intended to have a standard set-theoretical interpretation
in HOL universes. A *HOL universe U* is a set of non-empty sets, such that U
is closed under non-empty subsets, finite products and powersets, an infinite set
$I \in U$ exists, and a choice function *ch* over U exists (i.e., $\forall X \in U : ch(X) \in$
X) . The subsets, products, and powersets together also yield function spaces. A
frequently considered example of a HOL universe is the set $V_{\omega+\omega} \setminus \{0\}$,[4] with *ch*
being its (ZFC-guaranteed) selector, and $I = \omega$. The standard U-interpretation of
a *monomorphic* (i.e., free of type variables) type σ is a set $[[\sigma]] \in U$, a *polymorphic*
(i.e., containing type variables) type σ with n type variables is interpreted as a
function $[[\sigma]] : U^n \to U$, and the arrow operator observes the standard function-
space behavior (lifted to appropriate mappings for polymorphic types) on the
type interpretations. The standard interpretation of a closed monomorphic term
$t : \sigma$ is an element of the set $[[\sigma]] \in U$, and a closed polymorphic term (with n type
variables) $t : \sigma$ with $[[\sigma]] : U^n \to U$ is interpreted as a (dependently typed) function
assigning to each n-tuple $[X_1, \ldots, X_n] \in U^n$ an element of $[[\sigma]]([X_1, \ldots, X_n])$. The
HOL logic's type signature starts with the built-in nullary type constants `ind`
(interpreted as the infinite set I), and `bool` (type of propositions), interpreted
as a chosen two-element set in U (its existence follows from the properties of a
HOL universe). The term signature initially contains the polymorphic constants
$=_{\alpha \to \alpha \to bool}$, and $\epsilon_{(\alpha \to bool) \to \alpha}$, interpreted as the equality and selector on each set in
U. The inference mechanisms start with a set of standard primitive inference rules,
later adding the axioms of functional extensionality, choice (implying the excluded
middle in the HOL setting), and infinity. New type and term constructors can be
introduced by simple definitional extension mechanisms, which are in **HOL Light**
also used to introduce the standard logical connectives and quantifiers. The result
is a classical logic system that is in practice quite close to set theory, differing
from it mainly by the built-in type discipline (allowing also complete automation
of abstraction) and by more frequent use of total functions to model mathematical
objects. For example, predicates are modelled as total functions to `bool` on types,
and sets are in **HOL Light** identified with (unary) predicates. The main issues
for translation are the type system and the automated reification (abstraction)
mechanisms that are not immediately available in first-order logic and may be
encoded in more or less efficient and complete ways.

2.2 The `MESON` Translation

An obvious first idea for generating FOL ATP problems from **HOL Light** problems
was to re-use parts of the already implemented `MESON` tactic. This tactic tries
to justify a given goal G with a supplied list of premises $P_1, ..., P_n$ by calling a
customized first-order ATP implemented in **HOL Light**, which is based on the model

---

[4] This shows that the HOL logic is in general weaker than ZFC.

elimination method invented by Loveland [44], later combined with Prolog-like search tree [45]. The implementation of the MESON tactic in HOL Light first applies a number of standard translation techniques (like β-reduction followed by lambda lifting, skolemization, introduction of the apply functor,[5] etc.) that transform the HOL goal (together with the supplied premises) to a clausal FOL goal (or multiple goals). An interesting (and MESON-specific) part of the transformation is a rather exhaustive and heuristic instantiation of the (often polymorphic) premises (called POLY_ASSUME_TAC), described below. The clausal FOL goal is then passed to the core ATP. If the core ATP succeeds, it returns a proof, which is then translated into HOL Light proof steps. The transformation from HOL to FOL is heuristic, incomplete, and tuned for relatively small problems. An interesting feature of MESON is that the core ATP does not treat equality specially (as is quite common in tableau provers), which in turn allows using multiple instantiated versions of equality (e.g., on lists and on real numbers) inside one problem. Such equational separation, when combined with the heuristic instantiation of other polymorphic constants done by MESON, then prevents the core ATP from doing ill-typed inferences without the necessity for any additional type guards.

The most interesting part of the translation heuristically instantiates the (possibly polymorphic) premises $P_1, ..., P_n$ and adds them to the goal G. This is done iteratively, building a new temporary goal G_i (where $G_0 = G$) from each premise P_i and the previous goal G_{i-1} as follows. All (possibly polymorphic) constants are collected from P_i and G_{i-1}, and the set of all their pairs is created. When such a pair $\{c_P, c_G\}$ consists of two (symbolically) equal constants, the type of c_P is matched to the type of c_G, and if a substitution σ exists (i.e., $Type_{c_P}\sigma = Type_{c_G}$), it is added to the resulting set Σ_i of type substitutions. Each type substitution from Σ_i is then applied to P_i, and all such resulting instances of P_i are added as assumptions to G_{i-1}, yielding G_i. The set of assumptions of the goal G_i is thus typically greater than that of G_{i-1}, and the same typically holds for the set of constants in G_i, which will be in turn used to instantiate P_{i+1}.

This procedure is quite effective for the small problems that MESON normally handles. However, for problems with many premises and many polymorphic constants this turns out to be very inefficient. While re-using MESON allowed the quick initial exploration of using external ATPs and advisors described in [41], this inefficiency practically excluded the (seemingly straightforward) use of the unmodified MESON procedure as an (at least basic) translation method for generating ATP problems with many premises. This is why the experiments presented here use different translations, described below.

Completeness of the translation from HOL to FOL is in general hard to achieve in an efficient way. The MESON translation is incomplete in several ways. The goal's proper assumptions are not monomorphised, and the free variables of polymorphic types are not used in the same way as the polymorphic constants. For example, given the premise:

$$\forall P : \alpha \to \text{bool}.\forall x : \alpha.Px$$

and a goal that does not mention α, the premise will never be instantiated to the type present in the goal, and thus will not be usable for MESON.

---

[5] Identity is used by MESON as the apply functor.

2.3 Translation to the TFF1 and FOF Formats

There is a "simple" solution to the instantiation blow-up experienced with the MESON translation: avoid heuristic instantiation as a pre-processing step, and instead let the ATPs handle it as a part of the ATP problems. This technique is used in the Mizar/MPTP translation, where the (dependent and undecidable) soft type system cannot be separated from the core predicate logic. The relevant heuristics can instead be developed (and experimented with) on the level of ATPs, and indeed, for example the SPASS system has implemented early [74] a number of ATP techniques for both complete and incomplete work with (auto-detected) types. This approach has been in the recent years facilitated by developing type-aware TPTP standards like TFF0, TFF1, and THF, which – unlike related type-aware efforts like DFG and KIF – seem to be more successful in being adopted by ATP and tool developers. In the case of the recent TFF1 standard [16] (adding HOL-like polymorphic types to first-order logic), a translation tool to the FOF and SMT formats has been developed in 2012 by Andrei Paskevich as part of the Why3 system [25], simplifying the first experiments with the non-instantiating translation.

The translation to TFF1 proceeds similarly to the MESON translation, but without applying the POLY_ASSUME_TAC. The problem formulas are β-reduced, the remaining lambda abstractions are again removed using lambda lifting, and the apply functor is heuristically introduced. The particular heuristic for this is the one used by Meng and Paulson, i.e., for each higher-order constant c the minimum arity n_c with which it appears in a problem is computed, and the first n_c arguments are always passed to c directly inside the problem. If the constant is also used with more arguments in the problem, apply is used. Blanchette reports that this optimization works fairly well for Isabelle/Sledgehammer, and gives a simple example when it introduces incompleteness. As an example of the translation to the TFF1 format, consider the re-proving problem for the theorem Float.REAL_-EQ_INV[6] proved as part of the Jordan curve theorem formalization,[7] whose HOL Light proof is as follows:

```
let REAL_EQ_INV = prove('∀x y. ((x:real = y) ⟺ (inv(x) = inv (y)))',
((REPEAT GEN_TAC))
THEN (EQ_TAC)
THENL [((DISCH_TAC THEN (ASM_REWRITE_TAC[])));
 (* branch 2*) ((DISCH_TAC))
THEN ((ONCE_REWRITE_TAC [(GSYM REAL_INV_INV)]))
THEN ((ASM_REWRITE_TAC[]))]);;
```

The dependency tracking (see Section 3.1.2) has found the following dependencies of the theorem:[8]

```
AND_DEF FORALL_DEF IMP_DEF REAL_INV_INV REFL_CLAUSE TRUTH
Tactics_jordan.unify_exists_tac_example
```

From these dependencies, only REAL_INV_INV has nontrivial first-order content (a list of the trivial facts has been collected and is used for such filtering). The problem creation additionally adds three facts encoding properties of (HOL) booleans, and

---

[6] 09895.p

[7] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hol-flyspeck/trunk/Jordan/float.html#REAL_EQ_INV

[8] Tactics_jordan.unify_exists_tac_example is just 'T=T'. The name is accidental.

also the functional extensionality axiom (`EQ_EXT`). In the original HOL Light syntax the re-proving problem looks as follows:

```
%   ORIGINAL: Float.REAL_EQ_INV
% Assm: EQ_EXT: !f g. (!x. f x = g x) ==> f = g
% Assm: BOOL_CASES_AX: !t. (t <=> T) \/ (t <=> F)
% Assm: NOT_CLAUSES_WEAK_conjunct1: ~F <=> T
% Assm: REAL_INV_INV: !x. inv (inv x) = x
% Assm: TRUTH: T
% Goal: !x y. x = y <=> inv x = inv y
```

After applying β-reduction, lambda lifting (none in the example), and introducing the `apply` functor (called here `happ`), this is transformed (still as HOL terms) as follows:

```
%   PROCESSED
% Assm: !f g. (!x. happ f x = happ g x) ==> f = g
% Assm: !t. (t <=> T) \/ (t <=> F)
% Assm: ~F <=> T
% Assm: !x. inv (inv x) = x
% Assm: T
% Goal: !x y. x = y <=> inv x = inv y
```

The application functor `happ` was only used for the function variables in the extensionality axiom (`EQ_EXT`). The function `inv` is always used with one argument in the problem, so it is never wrapped with `happ`. Finally, the TFF1 TPTP export declares the signature of the symbols and type operators, and adds the corresponding guarded quantifications to the formulas. The `apply` functor is called `i` in the TFF1 export (for concise output in case of many applications in a goal), and it explicitly takes also the type arguments (A and B in `aEQu_EXT`). This (making the implicit type variables explicit) is in TFF1 done for any symbol that remains polymorphic.

HOL Light allows one identifier to denote several different underlying constants. In the running example, `inv` is such an overloaded identifier and denotes the inverse operations on several different types. To deal with such identifiers different names are used for each underlying constant separately in the TFF1 export signature, so that the identifiers can be printed using their non-overloaded names like `real_inv`.

```
%   TYPES
tff(tbool, type, bool:$tType).
tff(tfun, type, fn:($tType * $tType) > $tType).
tff(treal, type, real:$tType).
%   CONSTS
tff(cp, type, p : (bool > $o)).
tff(chapp, type, i:!>[A:$tType,B:$tType]: ((fn(A,B) * A) > B)).
tff(cF, type, f:bool).
tff(crealu_inv, type, realu_inv:(real > real)).
tff(cT, type, t:bool).
%   AXIOMS
tff(aEQu_EXT, axiom, ![A : $tType,B : $tType]:
    ![F:fn(A,B),G:fn(A,B)]:(![X:A]:i(A,B,F,X) = i(A,B,G,X) => F = G)).
```

```
tff(aBOOLu_CASESu_AX, axiom, ![T:bool]:(T = t | T = f)).
tff(aNOTu_CLAUSESu_WEAKu_conjunct1, axiom, (~ (p(f)) <=> p(t))).
tff(aREALu_INVu_INV, axiom, ![X:real]:realu_inv(realu_inv(X)) = X).
tff(aTRUTH, axiom, p(t)).
tff(conjecture, conjecture, ![X:real,Y:real]:
    (X = Y <=> realu_inv(X) = realu_inv(Y))).
```

Problems in this format can be already given to the Why3 tool, which can translate them for various SMT solvers and ATP systems, and call the systems on the translated form. This was initially used both for ATPs working with the FOF format and for the SMTs. Currently, Why3 is only used for preparing problems for Yices, CVC3, and AltErgo. The translation to the FOF format was later implemented independently of Why3, to avoid additional translation layer for the strongest tools, and in particular to be able to run the ATPs with different parameters and in a proof-producing mode. The procedure is however the same as in Why3, and the resulting FOF form will be as follows.

```
% Goal: !x y. x = y <=> inv x = inv y
fof(aEQu_EXT, axiom, ![A,B]: ![F, G]:
    (![X]: s(B,i(s(fun(A,B),F),s(A,X))) = s(B,i(s(fun(A,B),G),s(A,X)))
    => s(fun(A,B),F) = s(fun(A,B),G))).
fof(aBOOLu_CASESu_AX, axiom,
    ![T]: (s(bool,T) = s(bool,t) | s(bool,T) = s(bool,f))).
fof(aNOTu_CLAUSESu_WEAKu_conjunct1, axiom,
    (~ (p(s(bool,f))) <=> p(s(bool,t)))).
fof(aREALu_INVu_INV, axiom,
    ![X]: s(real,realu_inv(s(real,realu_inv(s(real,X))))) = s(real,X)).
fof(aTRUTH, axiom, p(s(bool,t))).
fof(conjecture, conjecture, ![X, Y]: (s(real,X) = s(real,Y) <=>
    s(real,realu_inv(s(real,X))) = s(real,realu_inv(s(real,Y))))).
```

This translation uses the (possibly quadratic) tagging of terms with their types, used, e.g., in Hurd's work.

2.4 Translations to Higher-order Formats

The recently developed THF TPTP standard can be used to encode problems in monomorphic higher-order logic. This allows experimenting with higher-order ATPs like LEO2 [10] and Satallax [19], in addition to the standard ATPs working in the first-order formalism. The translation to THF needs to perform only one step: monomorphisation. As explained in 2.2, this is however a nontrivial task, and the MESON tactic approach is already in practice too exhaustive for problems with many premises.

After developing the TFF1 and FOF translation, some initial experiments were done to produce a monomorphisation heuristic that behaves reasonably on problems with many premises. This heuristic is now as follows. The constants that can be used to instantiate the premises are extracted only once from the goal at the start of the procedure. Every premise can be instantiated using these goal constants, but the premises themselves are not further used to grow this set. This

means that the procedure is even less complete than `MESON`, however the procedure is linear in the number of premises, and it is therefore possible to use it even with large numbers of advised premises. In practice, it is rarely the case that a premise can be instantiated in more than one way. A simple example when this happens is in the THF problem[9] created for the theorem `I_O_ID`,[10] where the particular goal and premise (both properties of the identity function) are as follows:

```
Assm: I_THM: !x. I x = x
Goal: I_O_ID: !f. I o f = f /\ f o I = f
```

Since the identity function appears in the goal both with the type $a{\to}a$ and with the type $b{\to}b$ (where $f:a{\to}b$), the following two instances of the premise `I_THM` are created by the THF translation:

```
% TYPES
thf(ci0, type, i0 : (a > a)).
thf(ci, type, i : (b > b)).
% AXIOMS
thf(aIu_THMu_monomorphized0, axiom, ![X:a]:((i0 @ X) = X)).
thf(aIu_THMu_monomorphized1, axiom, ![X:b]:((i @ X) = X)).
```

Finally, while there is no TPTP standard yet for the polymorphic HOL logic, this logic is shared by a number of systems in the HOL family of ITPs. For the experiments described in 5.1 Isabelle is used in its CASC 2012 THF mode, but it should be possible to pass the problems to Isabelle directly in some (not necessarily TPTP) polymorphic HOL encoding. This is has been tried only to a small extent, and is still future work.

3 Exporting Theorem Problems for Re-proving with ATPs

In the initial exploration described in [41], it was found that the ATP problems created from the calls to the `MESON` tactic in the HOL Light and Flyspeck libraries are very easy for the state-of-the-art ATPs. Some of this easiness might have been caused by the (generally unsound) merging of different polymorphic versions of equality used by `MESON` into just one standard first-order equality, however after a manual random inspection it still seemed that the ratio of such unsound proofs is low, and the `MESON` problems are just too easy. That is why only the set of problems on the *theorem* level is considered for experiments here. The *theorem* level seems to be quite similar in the major ITPs: *theorem* is typically not corresponding to what mathematicians call a theorem, but it is rather a self-sufficient lemma with a formal proof of several to dozens (exceptionally hundreds) lines that can be useful in other formal proofs and hence should be named and exported. Since the ITP proofs can be longer, proving such theorems fully automatically is typically a challenge, which makes such problems suitable for ATP benchmarks, challenges, and competitions.

---

[9] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/OrigDepsProbs/i/h/00119.p

[10] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hol-flyspeck/trunk/trivia.html#I_O_ID

3.1 Collecting Theorems and their Dependency Tracking

In Mizar/MPTP and in Isabelle (done by Blanchette in so far unpublished work) the ATP problems corresponding to theorems can be produced by collecting the dependencies (premises) from the proofs (by suitable tracking mechanisms), and then translating the $Premises \vdash Theorem$ problem using the methods described in Section 2. The recent work by Adams in exporting HOL Light to HOL Zero [1] (with cross-verification as the main motivation) was initially used to obtain the theorem dependencies for the first experiments with HOL Light in [41], and after that custom theorem-exporting and dependency-tracking mechanisms were implemented as described below.

3.1.1 Collecting and Naming of Theorems

The first issue in implementing such mechanism is to decide what is considered to be a relevant theorem, and what should be its canonical name. In some ITPs, important statements have labels like `lemma`, `theorem`, `corollary`, etc. This is not the case in HOL Light, which is implemented in the OCaml toplevel. This means that every theorem or tactic is just an OCaml value. Some of those values are assigned names, while some are only created on the fly and immediately forgotten. In the relevant exporting work of Obua [50], every occurrence of the HOL Light command `prove` is replaced with a command that additionally records the name of the stored object. This strategy was used first, and extended to work with the whole Flyspeck library by also recording the names for the following commands: `prove_by_refinement`, `new_definition`, `new_recursive_definition`, `new_specification`, `new_inductive_definition`, `define_type`, and `lift_theorem`. This purely syntactic-replacement method however turned out to be insufficient for a number of reasons. First, this method does not provide information about the scope of names with respect to the OCaml modules. Second, it does not provide the information whether a name given to a theorem has been declared on the top level, or inline inside a function (which makes such theorem unusable for proving other theorems on the toplevel), or even within a function called multiple times with different arguments (in which case the same name would be assigned to a number of different theorems). Finally, certain theorems accessible on the toplevel are created using other OCaml mechanisms, for example mapping a decision procedure over a list of terms. Recognizing syntactically theorems created in this way turned out to be impractical.

That is why a more robust method has been eventually used, based on the `update_database`[11] recording functionality by Harrison and Zumkeller. This code accesses the basic OCaml data structures and allows to record the name-value pairs for all OCaml values of the type `theorem` in a given OCaml state. Thus it is sufficient to load the whole Flyspeck development, and then invoke this recording functionality.

After some initial experiments with ATP re-proving of the translated problems, this method was however further modified to be able to keep finer track of the use of theorems that are conjunctions of multiple facts. Such (often large) conjunctive theorems are used quite frequently in HOL Light, typically to package

---

[11] `http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hol-flyspeck/trunk/Examples/update_database.html`

together facts that are likely to jointly provide a useful method for dealing with certain concepts or certain kinds of problems. For example the theorem `ARITH_EQ`[12] packages together ten facts about the equality of numerals as follows:

```
let ARITH_EQ = prove
 (`(∀m n. (NUMERAL m = NUMERAL n) ⟺ (m = n)) ∧
   ((_0 = _0) ⟺ T) ∧
   (∀n. (BIT0 n = _0) ⟺ (n = _0)) ∧
   (∀n. (BIT1 n = _0) ⟺ F) ∧
   (∀n. (_0 = BIT0 n) ⟺ (_0 = n)) ∧
   (∀n. (_0 = BIT1 n) ⟺ F) ∧
   (∀m n. (BIT0 m = BIT0 n) ⟺ (m = n)) ∧
   (∀m n. (BIT0 m = BIT1 n) ⟺ F) ∧
   (∀m n. (BIT1 m = BIT0 n) ⟺ F) ∧
   (∀m n. (BIT1 m = BIT1 n) ⟺ (m = n))`,
  REWRITE_TAC[NUMERAL; GSYM LE_ANTISYM; ARITH_LE] THEN
  REWRITE_TAC[LET_ANTISYM; LTE_ANTISYM; DENUMERAL LE_0]);;
```

An even more extreme example is the `ARITH` theorem which conjoins together all the basic arithmetic facts (there are 108 of them in the current version of HOL Light). The conjuncts of such theorems are now also named (using a serial numbering of the form `ARITH_EQ_conjunctN`), so that the dependency tracking can later precisely record which of the conjuncts were used in a particular proof. This significantly prunes the search space for ATP re-proving of the theorems that previously depended on the large conjunctive dependencies, and also makes the learning data extracted from dependencies of such theorems more precise.

This method can however result in introduction of multiple names for a single theorem (which is just a HOL Light term of type `theorem`). If that happens (for this or other reasons), the first name that was associated with the theorem during the Flyspeck processing is always consistently used, and the other alternative names are never used. Such consistency is important for the performance of the machine learning on the recorded proof data.[13] The list of all theorems and their names obtained in this way is saved in a file, and subsequently used in the dependency extraction and problem creation passes.

3.1.2 Dependency Recording

After the detection and naming of theorems, the recording of proof dependencies is performed, by processing the whole library again with a patched version of the HOL Light kernel. This patched version is the proof-recording component of the new HOL-Import [40], a mechanism designed to transfer proofs from HOL Light to Isabelle/HOL in an efficient way allowing the export of big repositories like Flyspeck. The code for every HOL inference step is patched, to record the newly created theorems. Each theorem is assigned a unique integer counter, and for every new theorem its dependencies on other theorems (integers) are recorded and exported to a file. For every processed theorem it is also checked if it is one of the theorems named in the previous theorem-naming pass. If so, the association of this theorem's name to its number is recorded, and again exported to a file.

---

[12] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hol-flyspeck/trunk/calc_num.html#ARITH_EQ
[13] For example, the MaLARea system does such de-duplication as a useful preprocessing step before learning and theorem-proving is started on a large number of related problems.

After this dependency-recording pass, the recorded information is further processed by an offline program to eliminate all unnamed dependencies (originating for example from having multiple names for a single theorem). For every named theorem its dependencies are inspected, and if a dependency D does not have a name, it is replaced by its own dependencies (there is no unnamed dependency that could not be further expanded). This is done recursively, until all unnamed dependencies are removed. This produces for each named theorem T a minimal (wrt. the original HOL Light proof) list of named theorems that are sufficient to prove T.

The numbering of theorems respects the order in which the theorems are processed in the Flyspeck development. This total ordering is compatible with (extends) the partial ordering induced by proof dependencies, and for the experiments conducted here it is assumed to be the *chronological order* in which the library was developed. The dependency information given in this chronological order for all 16082 named theorems (of which 1897 are (type) definitions, axioms, or their parts, and their dependencies are not exported) obtained by processing the Flyspeck library[14] (and its HOL Light pre-requisites) is available online.[15] Together with suitably chosen characterizations of the theorems (see Section 4.1), this constitutes an interesting new dataset for machine-learning techniques that attempt to predict the most useful premises from the formal library for proving the next conjecture.

3.2 The Data Set of ATP Re-proving Problems

Analogously to Mizar and Isabelle, the re-proving ATP problems for the collected named theorems are finally produced by translating the *Dependencies* $\vdash$ *Theorem* problem to the ATP formalisms using the methods described in Section 2, together with basic filtering of dependencies that have trivial first-order content. 1897 of the 16082 named theorems do not have a proof, typically those are definitions. For all the remaining 14185 named theorems the corresponding re-proving ATP problems were created, and are available online[16] in the FOF, THF, and TFF1 formats. These problems are used for the ATP re-proving experiments described in Section 5.1. Smaller meaningful datasets will likely be created from this large dataset for ATP/AI competitions like CASC LTB and Mizar@Turing[17], analogously to the smaller MPTP2078[18] [4] ATP benchmark created from the ATP-translated Mizar library (MML), and the Judgement Day benchmark [18] created by ATP translation of a subset of the Isabelle/HOL library.

The average, minimum, and maximum numbers of formulas in these datasets are shown in Table 1, together with the corresponding statistics for the problems expressed in the original HOL formalism. It can be seen that the number of formulas in the translated problems is typically at most twice the number of the original HOL formulas, i.e., the translations are indeed efficient for all the problems. This was

---

[14] Flyspeck SVN revision 2887 from 2012-06-26 and HOL Light SVN revision 146 from 2012-06-02 are used for all experiments.

[15] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/deps.all

[16] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/OrigDepsProbs/co_i_f_p_h.tgz

[17] http://www.cs.miami.edu/~tptp/CASC/J6/Design.html#CompetitionDivisions

[18] http://wiki.mizar.org/twiki/bin/view/Mizar/MpTP2078

Table 1: Sizes of the re-proving ATP problems (numbers of formulas)

Format	Problems	Average size	Minimum size	Maximum size
HOL	14185	42.7	4	510
FOF	14185	42.7	4	510
TFF1	14185	71.9	10	693
THF	14185	78.8	5	1436

not the case (and became a bottleneck) in the initial experiments using the more prolific MESON translation. There is no increase in the number of formulas when translating from the original HOL-formulated problem to the FOF translation. For the TFF1 translation, formulas declaring the types of the symbols appearing in the problems are added, and for the THF translation multiple instances of the premises can additionally appear. The following Table 2 shows the times needed for the various exporting phases explained above. For completeness, the time needed to export characterizations of the theorems for external (e.g., machine-learning) tools is also included (see Section 4.1 for the description of the characterizations that are used).

Table 2: Times of the exporting phases

Phase	Time (minutes)
standard Flyspeck loading/verification	180
detection and naming of theorems	1
exporting theorem characterizations	5
dependency recording using patched kernel	540
offline post-processing of dependencies	10
creating re-proving ATP problems in FOF	34
creating re-proving ATP problems in TFF1	53
creating re-proving ATP problems in THF	32
total	855

4 Premise Selection

Given a large library like Flyspeck, the interesting ATP/AI task is to prove new theorems without having to manually select the relevant premises. In the past decade, a number of premise selection methods have been developed and experimented with over large theories like Mizar/MML, Isabelle/HOL, SUMO, and Cyc. See [67,43] for recent overviews of such methods.

ATP problems of this kind are created for Mizar/MML by consistent translation of the whole MML to TPTP, and then letting external premise selection algorithms find the most relevant premises for a given theorem t from the large set of t-allowed premises (typically those theorems and definitions that were already available when t was being proved, expressed, e.g., as TPTP include files). For Isabelle/Sledgehammer, the default premise selection algorithm is implemented inside Isabelle, i.e., it is working on the native Isabelle symbols. Only after the Sledgehammer premise selection chooses the suitable set of premises, the problem

is translated to a given ATP formalism using one of the several implemented translation methods. In general, the symbol naming is in Isabelle only consistent before the translation is applied, and a particular symbol in two translated problems can have different meanings.

Both the Mizar and the Isabelle approach have some advantages and disadvantages. Optimizing the translation (or using multiple translations) as done in Isabelle can improve the ultimate ATP performance once the premises have been selected. On the other hand, if the whole library is not translated in a consistent manner to a common ATP format like TPTP, ATP-oriented external premise selection tools like SInE cannot be directly used on the whole library. It could be argued that the SInE algorithm is relatively close to the Sledgehammer premise selection algorithm, and can be easily implemented inside Isabelle. However there are useful premise selection methods for which this is not so straightforward. For example in the MaLARea system, evaluation of premises in a large common pool of finite first-order models is an additional semantic premise-characterization method that improves the overall precision quite significantly [70].[19] For such a pool of first-order models to be useful, the premises have to use symbols consistently also after the translation to first-order logic. Although various techniques can again be developed to lift this method to the current Sledgehammer translation setting, they seem less straightforward than for example a direct Isabelle implementation of SInE. This discussion currently applies also to the HOL Light ATP translations described in Section 2. For example, the problem-specific optimization of the arity of symbols described in 2.3 will in general cause inconsistency on the symbol level between the FOF translations of two different HOL Light problems.

The procedure implemented for HOL Light is currently a combination of the external, internal, learning, and non-learning premise-selection approaches. This procedure assumes the common ITP situation of a large library of (also definitional) theorems T_i and their proofs P_i (for definitions the proof is empty), over which a new conjecture has to be proved. The proofs refer to other theorems, giving rise to a partial dependency ordering of the theorems extended into their total chronological ordering as described for Flyspeck in 3.1.2. For the experiments it will be assumed that the library was developed in this order. An overview of the procedure is as follows, and its details are explained in the following subsections.

1. Suitable characterizations (see 4.1) of the theorems and their proof dependencies are exported from HOL Light in a simple format.
2. Additional (often smaller and preferable [42]) dependency data are obtained by running ATPs on the ATP problems created from the HOL Light proof dependencies (i.e., the ATPs are run in the re-proving mode). These data are again exported using the same format as in (1).
3. The (global, first-stage) external premise selectors preprocess (typically train on) the (possibly multiple) theorem characterizations and the (possibly multiple) proof dependencies.
4. When a new conjecture is stated in HOL Light, its characterization is extracted and send to the (pre-trained) first-stage premise selectors.

---

[19] A recent evidence for the usefulness of model-based selection methods is the difference (64% vs. 50%) between the (otherwise quite similar) systems MaLARea and PS-E in the 2012 Mizar@Turing competition.

5. The first-stage premise selectors work as rankers. For a given conjecture characterization they produce a ranking of the available theorems (premises) according to their (assumed) relevance for the conjecture.

6. The best-ranked premises are used inside HOL Light to produce ATP (FOF, TFF1, THF) problems. Typically several thresholds (8, 32, 128, 512, etc.) on the number of included premises are used, resulting in multiple versions of the ATP problems.

7. The ATPs are called on the problems. Some of the best ATPs are run in a strategy-scheduling mode combining multiple strategies. Some of the strategies always use the SInE (i.e., local, second-stage) premise selection (with different parameters), and some other strategies may decide to use SInE when the ATP problem is sufficiently large.

Loop to improve (2) and (3): It is not an uncommon phenomenon that in the data-improving step (2) (ATP re-proving from the HOL Light proof dependencies) an ATP proof could not be found for some theorem T_i, but an alternative proof of T_i can be found from some other theorems preceding T_i in the chronological order (which guards such alternative proofs against cycles). To achieve this, the trained premise selectors can be used also on all theorems that are already in the library, and the whole ATP/training process can be iterated several times to obtain as many ATP proofs as possible, and better (and differently) trained premise selectors for step (3). This is the same loop as in MaLARea.

4.1 Formula Characterizations Used for Learning

Given a new conjecture C, how do mathematicians decide that certain previous knowledge will be relevant for proving C? The approach taken in practically all existing premise-selection methods is to extract from such C a number of suitably defined features, and use them as the input to the premise selection for C. The most obvious characterization that already works well in large libraries is the (multi)set of symbols appearing in the conjecture. This can be further extended in many interesting ways, using various methods developed, e.g., in statistical machine translation and web search, but also by methods specific to the formal mathematical domain. In this work, characterization of HOL formulas by all their subterms (found useful in MaLARea) was used, and adapted to the typed HOL logic. For example, the latest version of the characterization algorithm would describe the HOL theorem `DISCRETE_IMP_CLOSED`:[20]

```
∀s:real^N→bool e.
       &0 < e ∧ (∀x y. x IN s ∧ y IN s ∧ norm(y − x) < e ⟹ y = x)
       ⟹ closed s
```

by the following set of strings:

```
"real", "num", "fun", "cart", "bool", "vector_sub", "vector_norm",
"real_of_num", "real_lt", "closed", "_0", "NUMERAL", "IN", "=", "&0",
"&0 < Areal", "0", "Areal", "Areal^A", "Areal^A - Areal^A",
"Areal^A IN Areal^A->bool", " Areal^A->bool", "_0", "closed Areal^A->bool",
"norm (Areal^A - Areal^A)", "norm (Areal^A - Areal^A) < Areal"
```

This characterization is obtained by:

---

[20] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hol-flyspeck/trunk/Multivariate/topology.html#DISCRETE_IMP_CLOSED

1. Normalizing all type variables to just one variable `A`.
2. Replacing (normalizing) all term variables with their normalized type.
3. Collecting all (normalized) types and their component types recursively.
4. Collecting all (normalized) atomic formulas and their component terms recursively.
5. Including all "proper" term and type constructors (logic symbols like conjunction and the arrow type constructor are filtered out).

In the above example, `real` is a type constant, `IN` is a term constructor, `Areal^A->bool` is a normalized type, `Areal^A` its component type, `norm (Areal^A - Areal^A) < Areal` is an atomic formula, and `Areal^A - Areal^A` is its normalized subterm.

The normalization of variable names is an interesting topic. It is good if the premise selectors can notice some similarity between two terms with variables,[21] which is hard (when using strings) if the variables have different names. On the other hand, total normalization to just one generic variable name removes also the information that the variables in a particular subterm were (not) equal. Also, terms with differently typed variables should be more distant from each other than those with the same variable types. In total, four versions of variable normalization were tested:

`syms0`: All free and bound variables are given the same name `A0`. This encoding is the most liberal, i.e., the resulting equality relation on the features is the coarsest one, allowing the premise selectors to see many similarities.

`syms`: First the free variables are consecutively numbered (`A0`, `A1`, etc). Then the bound variables are named with the subsequent numbers. This results in a finer notion of similarity than in `syms0`.

`symst`: Every variable is renamed to a textual representation of its type, for example `Anum` or `Areal`. This is again finer than `syms0`, but different from `syms`. This normalization is used in the above example, and also for most of the premise selection trainings.

`symsd`: In one `symst` implementation, the internal HOL Light type variable numbering was accidentally used, thus making most of such term features disjoint between different theorems. The performance was lower, however the method produces some unique solutions and is included in the evaluation.

In addition to that, several feature exports included also logic symbols. Various feature characterizations can have different performance on different datasets, and such characterizations can be also combined together in interesting ways. This is a rather large research topic that is left as future work for this newly developed dataset, along with other large-theory datasets. Just including the features encoding the validity in finite models will be interesting.

4.2 Machine Learning of Premise Selection

All the currently used first-stage premise selectors are machine learning algorithms trained in various ways on previous proofs. A number of machine learning algorithms can be experimented with today, and in particular kernel-based methods [4]

---

[21] One could require the similarity to also handle matching, etc. A simple way how to do it is to generate even more features. This is again left to further general research in this area.

and ensemble methods [43] have recently shown quite good performance on smaller datasets like MPTP2078. However, scaling and tuning such methods to a large corpus like Flyspeck and to quite a large number of incremental training and testing experiments is not straightforward.[22] That is why this work so far uses mostly the sparse implementation of a multiclass naive Bayes classifier provided by the SNoW system [20]. SNoW can incrementally train and produce predictions on the whole Flyspeck library presented in the chronological order in an hour (and often considerably faster on minimized data). I.e., one new prediction takes a fraction of a second. In addition to that, several other fast incremental (online) learning algorithms were briefly tried: the Perceptron and Winnow algorithms provided also by SNoW, and a custom implementation of the k-nearest neighbor (k-NN) algorithm. Only k-NN however produced enough additional prediction power. As already mentioned, the first-stage algorithms are often complemented by SInE as a second-stage premise selector when the ATP problem is written, and that is why some (in particular SInE-like) algorithms might look mostly redundant (in the overall ATP evaluation) when used at the first stage. This is obviously a consequence of the particular setup used here.

Two kinds of evaluation are possible in this setting and have been used several times for the Mizar data: a pure machine-learning evaluation comparing the predicted premises with the set of known sufficient premises, and an evaluation that actually runs an ATP on the predicted premises. While data are available also for the former, in this paper only the second evaluation is presented, see Section 5.2. The main reason for this is that alternative proofs are quite common in large libraries, and they often obfuscate the link between the pure machine-learning performance and the final ATP performance. Measuring the final ATP performance is more costly, however it practically stopped being a problem with the recent arrival of low-cost workstations with dozens of CPUs.

At a given point during the library development, the training data available to the machine learners are the proofs of the previously theorems in the library. A frequently used approach to training premise selection is to characterize each proof P_i of theorem T_i as a (multi)set of theorems $\{T_{i_1}, ..., T_{i_m} | T_{i_j}\ used\ in\ P_i\}$. The training example will then consist of the input characterization (features) of T_i (see 4.1), and the output characterization (called also output targets, classes, or labels) will be the (multi)set $\{T_i\} \cup \{T_{i_1}, ..., T_{i_m} | T_{i_j}\ used\ in\ P_i\}$. Such training examples can be tuned in various ways. For example the output theorems may be further recursively expanded with their own dependencies, the input features could be expanded with the features of their definitions, various weighting schemes and similarity clusterings can be tried, etc. This is also mostly left to future general research in premise-selection learning. Once the machine learner is trained on a particular development state of the library, it is tested on the next theorem T in the chronological order. The input features are extracted from T and given to the trained learner which then answers with a ranking of the available theorems. This ranking is given to HOL Light, which uses it to produce ATP problems for T with varied numbers of the best-ranked premises.

---

[22] Such scaling up for the large Mizar library is work in progress at the time of writing this article.

4.3 Proof Data Used for Learning

An interesting problem is getting the most useful proof dependencies for learning. Many of the original Flyspeck dependencies are clearly unnecessary for first-order theorem provers, for example the definition of the $\wedge$ connective (AND_DEF) is a dependency of 14122 theorems. Another example are proofs done by decision procedures, which typically first apply some normalization steps justified by some lemmas, and then may perform some standard algorithm, again based on a number of lemmas. Often only a few of such dependencies are needed (i.e., the proofs found by decision procedures are often unnecessarily "complicated").

Some obviously unhelpful dependencies were filtered manually, and this was complemented by using also the data obtained from ATP re-proving (see Section 5.1). Vampire, E, and Z3 can together re-prove 43.2% of the Flyspeck theorems (see Table 5), which is quite a high number, useful for trying to post-process automatically the remaining dependency data or even to completely disregard them. The following approaches to combining such ATP and HOL Light dependencies were initially tried, and combined with the various characterization methods to get the training data:

minweight (default): Always prefer the minimal ATP proof if available. On the ATP re-proved theorems collect the statistics about how likely a dependency in the HOL Light proof is really going to be used by the ATP proof, and use this likelihood as a weight when ATP proof is not available. When the weight is 0, use (cautiously) a minimal weight (0.001 or 0.000001) instead.

nominweight: As minweight, but without a minimal weight. Totally ignore ATP-irrelevant HOL Light dependencies.

v_pref (e_pref, z_pref): Instead of using the minimal ATP proof, always prefer the Vampire (E, Z3) proof. Can be combined with both weighting methods.

symsonly: Ignore all proofs. Learn only on examples saying that a theorem is good for proving itself, i.e., for its feature characterization. The trained system will thus recommend theorems similar to the conjecture, but not the dependencies of such theorems.

atponly: Use only the (minimal) ATP proofs for learning. Ignore the HOL Light proofs completely, and construct only the symsonly training examples for theorems that have no ATP proof. Can be combined with v_pref, e_pref, z_pref.

At some point, a *pseudo-minimization* procedure started to be applied first to the ATP proofs: each proof is re-run only with the premises needed for the proof, and if the number of needed premises decreases, this is repeated until the premise count stabilizes. Often this further removes unnecessary premises that appeared in the ATP proof, e.g., by performing unnecessary rewriting steps. This was later followed by adding *cross-minimization*: Each proof is re-run (pseudo-minimized) not just by the ATP that found the proof, but by all ATPs. This can further improve the training data, and also raise the number of proofs found a particular ATP quite considerably, which in turn helps when proofs by a particular ATP are preferable for learning (see the v_pref approach above). Finally, the learning and proving can boost each other's performance: the proofs obtained by using the advice of the first-generation premise selectors can be added to the training data obtained from re-proving, and used to train the second generation of premise

selectors. This process can be looped, however only one iteration was done so far (using two different prediction methods).

The summary of the training data obtained by these procedures from the proofs is given in Table 3. Each of the ATP-obtained dependency sets (2–6 in Table 3) could be complemented by the HOL Light dependencies (1) as described above, producing differently trained advisors. For example, the best advising method based on (4) was only using the ATP proofs for training (no adding of HOL Light dependencies when the ATP proof was missing), preferring proofs by E (`e_pref`), using the `symst` (types instead of variables) characterizations, and choosing the best 128 premises. The new ATP proofs found using this method were added to (4), resulting in the dataset (5). The next most complementary advising method to that (measured before (5) became available) was combining the ATP dependencies from (2) with the HOL Light dependencies (1) using the `nominweight` and `v_pref` techniques, also using the `symst` features, and choosing the best 512 premises. The new ATP proofs found using this method were added to (5), resulting in (6). The performance of various premise selection methods is discussed in Section 5.

Table 3: Improving the dependency data used for training premise selection

Nr	Method	E		V		Z3		Union	
		thm	dep ø	thm	dep ø	thm	dep ø	**thm**	**dep ø**
1	HOL deps							**14185**	**61.87**
2	ATP on (1), 300s	5393	4.42	4700	5.15	4328	3.55	**5837**	**3.93**
3	ATP on (1), 600s*	5655	5.80	5697	5.90	4374	3.59	**6161**	**5.00**
4	(3) minimized	5646	4.52	5682	4.49	4211	3.47	**6104**	**4.35**
5	(4) ∪ 1. advised	6404	4.29	6308	4.17	5216	3.67	**6605**	**4.18**
6	(5) ∪ 2. advised	6848	3.90	6833	3.89	5698	3.48	**6998**	**3.81**

(1) - HOL deps: Dependencies exported from HOL Light

(2),(3): Dependencies obtained from proofs by ATPs run on HOL deps

(4): Cross-minimization of (3)

(5): Added dependencies from new proofs advised by the best learning method (using (4))

(5): Added dependencies from new proofs advised by the best complementary learning method (trained on (2) combined with (1))

(*): The 6161 count in (3) is higher than in the final 900s experiments shown in Table 5. This is due to a incorrect (cyclic) dependency export for about 60 early HOL Light theorems used for (2)–(4). For training premise selection the effect of this error is negligible.

4.4 Communication with the Premise Advisors

There are several modes in which external premise selectors can be used. The main mode used here for experiments is the *offline (batch) mode*. In this mode, the premise selectors are incrementally trained and tested on the whole library dependencies presented as one file in the chronological order. *Incremental training/testing* means that the learning system reads the examples from the file one by one, for each theorem first producing an advice (ranking of previous theorems) based only on its features, and only after that learning on the theorem's dependencies and proceeding to the next example. The rankings are then used in HOL Light to produce all ATP problems in batch mode. This mode is good for experiments, because the

learning data can be analyzed and pre-processed in various ways described above. All communication is fully file-based.

Another mode is used for *static online advice*. In this mode an (offline) pre-trained premise selector receives conjecture characterizations from HOL Light over a TCP socket, replies in real time with a ranking of theorems from which HOL Light produces the ATP problems and calls the ATPs to solve them. This mode has been initially implemented as a simple online service and can already be experimented with by interested readers.[23]

Finally, in a *dynamic online* mode the premise selector receives also training data in real time, and updates itself. The currently used learning systems support this dynamic mode, however, in an online service this mode of interaction requires some implementation of access rights, user limits, cloning of developments and services, etc. This is still future work, close to the recent work on formal mathematical editors and wikis [39,3].

5 Experiments

The main testing set in all scenarios is constructed from the 14185 Flyspeck theorems. To be able to explore as many approaches as possible, a smaller subset of 1419 theorems is often used. This subset is stable for all such experiments, and it is constructed by taking every tenth theorem (starting with 0-th) in the chronological ordering.

A number of first- and higher-order ATPs and SMT solvers were tried on the problems. The most extensively used are Vampire 2.6 (called also V below), modified E 1.6, and Z3 4.0. Proofs are important in the ITP/learning scenarios, so Z3 and E are (unless otherwise noted) run in a proof-producing mode. In particular for Z3 this costs some performance. E 1.6 is not run in its standard auto-mode, but in a strategy-scheduling wrapper[24] used by the MaLARea system in the Mizar@Turing large-theory competition. This wrapper (called either Epar or just E in the tables bellow) subsequently tries 14 strategies developed by the second author on the 1000 problems allowed for training large-theory AI/ATP systems before the Mizar@Turing competition.[25] Some of these strategies have become available in E 1.6 when it was released after CASC 2012, but E's auto-mode is still tuned for the TPTP library, and by default it always uses only one "best" strategy on a problem, shunning so far the temptations of strategy scheduling. Epar outperforms the old auto-mode of E 1.4 by over 20% on the Mizar@Turing training problems, and seems to be competitive with Vampire 2.6. Fifteen more systems (or their versions) were tried to a lesser extent (typically on the 1419-problem subset) in the experiments. Some of these systems perform very well, and might be used more extensively later. Sometimes an additional effort is needed to make systems really useful, for example proof/premise output might be missing, or additional mapping to a system's constructs needs to be done to take full advantage of the system's

---

[23] The service runs at colo12-c703.uibk.ac.at on port 8080, example queries are:
`echo 'CARD {3,4} = 2' | nc colo12-c703.uibk.ac.at 8080` ,
`echo '(A DIFF B) INTER C = EMPTY <=> (A INTER C) SUBSET B' | nc colo12-c703.uibk.ac.at 8080` .

[24] `https://github.com/JUrban/MPTP2/blob/master/MaLARea/bin/runepar.pl`

[25] Details of this will be published separately.

features. In this work such customizations are avoided. All the systems used are alphabetically listed in Table 4.

Table 4: Names and descriptions of the systems used in the evaluation

System (short)	Description
AltErgo	AltErgo version 0.94
CVC3	CVC3 version 2.2
E 1.6	E version 1.6pre011 Tiger Hill
Epar (E)	E version 1.6pre011 with the Mizar@Turing strategies
iProver	iProver version 0.99 (CASC-J6 2012)
Isabelle	Isabelle 2012 used in CASC 2012 (without LEO2 and Satallax)
leanCoP	leanCoP version 2.2 (using eclipse prolog)
LEO2	LEO2 version v1.4.2 (compiled on Unix with OCaml-3.11.2)
LEO2-np	LEO2 in the non-proof mode (faster)
Metis	Metis version 2.3 (release 20101019)
Paradox	Paradox version 4.0, 2010-06-29.
Prover9	Prover9 (32) version 2009-11A, November 2009.
SPASS	SPASS version 3.5
Satallax	Satallax version 2.6
Vampire (V)	Vampire version 2.6 (revision 1649)
Yices	Yices version 1.0.34
Z3	Z3 version 4.0

Unless specified otherwise, all systems are run with 30s time limit on a 48-core server with AMD Opteron 6174 2.2GHz CPUs, 320GB RAM, and 0.5MB L2 cache per CPU. Each problem is always assigned one CPU. In the tables below basic statistics are often computed about the population of the methods used: *Unique* solutions found by each method, and its *State of the art contribution (SOTAC)* as defined by CASC[26] A system's CASC-defined SOTAC will be highest even if the system solved only one problem (which no other system solved). That is why also the Σ−SOTAC value is used: the sum of a system's SOTAC over all problems attempted. These metrics often indicate how productive it is to add a particular system or its version to a population of systems. Often it is interesting to know the best joint performance when running N methods in parallel. Finding such best combination is however an instance of the classical NP-hard Maximum Coverage problem. While it is often possible to use SAT solvers to get an optimal solution, a greedy algorithm is always consistently used to avoid problems when scaling to larger datasets. This also allows to present this joint performance as a simple *Greedy (covering) sequence* that shows the benefit of adding the next best system to the previous best combination.

5.1 Using External ATPs to Prove Theorems from their HOL Light Dependencies

Table 5 shows the results of running Vampire, Epar, Z3, and Paradox on the 14185 theorem FOF problems constructed from the HOL Light proof dependencies. The

---

[26] For each problem solved by a system, its SOTAC for the problem is the inverse of the number of systems that solved the problem. A system's overall SOTAC is the average SOTAC over the problems it solves.

time limit for Vampire, Epar and Z3 was relatively high (900s), because particularly Vampire benefits from higher time limits (compare with Table 7) and the ATP proofs found by re-proving turn out to be more useful for training premise selectors than the original HOL Light dependencies (see Section 5.2). Paradox was run for 30 seconds to get some measure of the incompleteness of the FOF translation. The systems in Table 5 are already ordered using the *Greedy covering sequence*, i.e., the joint performance of the top two systems is 41.9%, etc. The counter-satisfiability detected by Paradox is not by default included in the *Greedy sequence*, since its goal is to find the strongest combination of proof-finding systems. The Paradox results are however included in the SOTAC and Unique columns.

Table 5: Epar, V, Z3 re-proving with 900s and Paradox with 30s (14185 problems)

Prover	Theorem (%)	Unique	Sotac	$\Sigma-$Sotac	CounterSat (%)	Greedy (%)
Vampire	5641 (39.7)	218	0.403	2273.58	0 (0.0)	5641 (39.7)
Epar	5595 (39.4)	194	0.400	2238.58	0 (0.0)	5949 (41.9)
Z3	4375 (30.8)	193	0.372	1629.08	2 (0.0)	6142 (43.2)
Paradox	5 (0.0)	0	0.998	2612.75	2614 (18.4)	6142 (43.2)
any	6142 (43.2)				2614 (18.4)	

Table 6 shows these results restricted to the 1419-problem subset. This provides some measure of the statistical error encountered when testing systems on the smaller problem set, and also a comparison of the systems' performance under high and low time limits used in Table 7.

Table 6: ATP re-proving with 900s time limit on 10% (1419) problems

Prover	Theorem (%)	Unique	Sotac	$\Sigma-$Sotac	CounterSat (%)	Greedy (%)
Vampire	577 (40.6)	19	0.403	232.25	0 (0.0)	577 (40.6)
Epar	572 (40.3)	23	0.405	231.75	0 (0.0)	608 (42.8)
Z3	436 (30.7)	17	0.369	160.75	0 (0.0)	625 (44.0)
Paradox	1 (0.0)	0	0.997	257.25	257 (18.1)	625 (44.0)
any	625 (44.0)				257 (18.1)	

Table 7 shows all tested systems on the 1419-problem subset, ordered by their absolute performance, and Table 8 shows the corresponding greedy ordering. The tested systems include also SMT solvers that use the TFF1 encoding and higher-order provers using the THF encoding. This is why it is no longer possible to aggregate the counter-satisfiability results (particularly found by Paradox) with the theoremhood results, and all the derived statistics are only computed using the Theorem column. While Vampire does well with high time limits in Table 5, it is outperformed by Z3 and E-based systems (Epar, E 1.6, LEO2-np) when using only 30 seconds (which seem more appropriate for interactive tools than 300 or even 900 seconds). This suggests that the strategy scheduling in Vampire might benefit from further tuning on the Flyspeck data. Z3 is not run in the proof-producing mode in this experiment, which improves its performance considerably. It is not very surprising (but still an evidence of nice integration work) that Isabelle performs best, as it already combines a number of other systems, see its CASC 2012

description[27] for details. An initial glimpse at Isabelle's unique solutions also shows that 75% of them are found by the recent Isabelle-specific additions to SPASS [17] and its tighter integration with Isabelle. This is again an evidence that pushing the domain knowledge inside ATPs (as done recently also with the MaLeCoP proto-type [72]) might be quite rewarding. The joint performance of all systems tested is 50.2% when Isabelle is included, and 47.4% when only the base systems are allowed. This is quite encouraging, and for example the counter-satisfiability results suggest that additional performance could be gained by further (possibly heuristic/learning) work on alternative translations. Pragmatically, this also means that when used in the MESON-tactic mode with premises explicitly provided by the users, a parallel 9-CPU machine running the nine systems from Table 8 will within 30 seconds prove half of the Flyspeck theorems without any further interaction.

Table 7: All ATP re-proving with 30s time limit on 10% of problems

Prover	Theorem (%)	Unique	Sotac	$\Sigma-$Sotac	CounterSat (%)	Processed
Isabelle	587 (41.3)	39	0.201	118.09	0 (0.0)	1419
Epar (E)	545 (38.4)	9	0.131	71.18	0 (0.0)	1419
Z3-4.0	513 (36.1)	17	0.149	76.49	0 (0.0)	1419
E 1.6	463 (32.6)	0	0.101	46.69	0 (0.0)	1419
LEO2-np	441 (31.0)	1	0.106	46.85	0 (0.0)	1419
Vampire	434 (30.5)	3	0.107	46.44	0 (0.0)	1419
CVC3	411 (28.9)	4	0.111	45.76	0 (0.0)	1419
Satallax	383 (26.9)	7	0.130	49.69	1 (0.0)	1419
Yices	360 (25.3)	0	0.097	35.06	0 (0.0)	1419
iProver	348 (24.5)	0	0.088	30.50	9 (0.6)	1419
Prover9	345 (24.3)	0	0.087	30.07	0 (0.0)	1419
Metis	331 (23.3)	0	0.085	28.23	0 (0.0)	1419
SPASS	326 (22.9)	0	0.081	26.46	0 (0.0)	1419
leanCoP	305 (21.4)	1	0.092	27.96	0 (0.0)	1419
AltErgo	281 (19.8)	1	0.100	28.14	0 (0.0)	1419
LEO2	53 (3.7)	0	0.082	4.34	0 (0.0)	1419
Paradox	1 (0.0)	0	0.059	0.06	259 (18.2)	1419
any	712 (50.1)				259 (18.2)	1419

Table 8: Greedy sequence for Table 7 (with and without Isabelle)

Prover	Isabelle	Z3-4.0	Epar	Satallax	CVC3	Vampire	LEO2-np	leanCoP	AltErgo
Sum %	41.3	46.9	48.8	49.3	49.6	49.9	50.0	50.1	50.1
Sum	587	666	693	700	705	709	710	711	712

Prover	Epar	Z3-4.0	Satallax	Vampire	LEO2-np	CVC3	AltErgo	Yices	leanCoP
Sum %	38.4	42.7	45.3	46.0	46.6	47.1	47.2	47.3	47.4
Sum	545	607	644	654	662	669	671	672	673

---

[27] www.cs.miami.edu/~tptp/CASC/J6/SystemDescriptions.html#Isabelle---2012

5.2 Using External ATPs to Prove Theorems with Premise Selection

As described in Section 4, there is a number of various approaches and parameters influencing the training of the premise selectors. These parameters were gradually (but not exhaustively) explored, typically on the 1419-problem subset. Several times the underlying training data changed quite significantly as a result of the data-improving passes described in Section 4.3, some of them evaluating the best prediction methods developed so far on all 14185 problems. All the experiments were limited to Vampire, Epar, and Z3. For most of the experiments (and unless otherwise noted) the first-stage premise selection is used to create problems with 8, 32, 128, and 512 premises. This slicing can be later fine-tuned, as done below in 5.2.2 for the best premise selection method.

Table 9 shows an initial evaluation of 16 different learning combinations trained on ATP proofs obtained in 300s, complemented by the HOL Light proof dependencies (the second and first pass in Table 3). The two exceptions are the `symst+symsonly` combination, which ignores all proofs, and the `syms+old+000001` combination, which uses older ATP-re-proving data obtained by running each ATP only for 30s (about 700 ATP proofs less). Each row in Table 9 is a union of twelve 30s ATP runs: Vampire, Epar, and Z3 used on the 8, 32, 128, and 512 slices. After this initial evaluation, the `symst` (types instead of variables) characterization was preferred, trivial symbols were always pruned out, and Winnow and Perceptron were left behind. It is of course possible that some of these methods is useful as a complement of better methods. Preferring Vampire proofs helps the learning a bit, for reasons that are not yet understood. To get the joint 39.5% performance, in general 192-fold ($= 16 * 12$) parallelization is needed. This could be reduced, but first better training methods were considered.

5.2.1 Further Premise Selection Improvements

Complementing the ATP dependency data with the (possibly discounted) HOL Light dependencies seems to be a plausible method. Even if the HOL Light dependencies are very redundant, the redundancies should be weighted down by the information learned from the large number of ATP proofs, and the remaining HOL Light dependencies should be in general more useful than no information at all. A possible explanation of why this approach might still be quite suboptimal (in the ATP setting) is that the HOL Light proofs are often not a good guidance for the ATP proofs, and may push the machine learners in a direction that is ATP-infeasible. A small clue that this might be the case is the good performance of the `nominweight` method in Table 9. This method completely ignores all HOL Light dependencies that were never used in previous ATP proofs. This suggested to test the more radical `atponly` approach, in which only the ATP proofs are used for training. This approach improved the best method from 29.4% to 31.9%, and added 25 newly solved problems (1.8%) to those solved by the 16 methods in Table 9. These results motivated further work on getting as many (and as minimal) ATP proofs as possible, producing the methods tagged as `m10, m10u` and `m10u2` in the tables below. These methods were trained on the proofs obtained by 10-minute (hence `m10`) ATP runs that were further upgraded by the advised proofs as described in Section 4.3. The best `m10u2` method raised the performance by further 0.5%, and

Table 9: 16 premise selection methods trained on ATP proofs complemented with HOL proofs

Method	Theorem (%)	Unique	Sotac	$\Sigma-$Sotac	Processed
B+symst+v_pref+nominweight	418 (29.4)	2	0.093	38.98	1419
B+symst	410 (28.8)	0	0.089	36.65	1419
B+syms0	406 (28.6)	0	0.084	33.99	1419
B+symst+triv	405 (28.5)	3	0.094	37.98	1419
B+syms	402 (28.3)	0	0.083	33.48	1419
B+syms+triv+nominweight	397 (27.9)	1	0.083	32.98	1419
B+syms0+triv	397 (27.9)	0	0.078	30.82	1419
B+syms+triv+v_pref	396 (27.9)	0	0.081	31.99	1419
B+syms+triv	393 (27.6)	0	0.077	30.13	1419
B+syms+triv+z_pref	392 (27.6)	1	0.082	32.09	1419
B+syms+triv+e_pref	392 (27.6)	0	0.078	30.45	1419
B+symsd	382 (26.9)	3	0.097	37.08	1419
B+syms+old+000001	376 (26.4)	14	0.129	48.34	1419
B+symst+symsonly	302 (21.2)	17	0.141	42.55	1419
W+symst	251 (17.6)	9	0.141	35.37	1419
P+symst	195 (13.7)	6	0.144	28.13	1419
any	561 (39.5)				1419

B,W,P: Naive Bayes, Winnow, Perceptron.
triv: Logical (trivial) symbols like conjunction are included.
old+000001: Using older 30-second ATP data, and a minimal weight of 0.000001 for irrelevant
  HOL dependencies (the default weight was 0.001).

the learning on the advised proofs in different ways made these methods again quite orthogonal to the previous ones.

Even though Winnow and Perceptron performed poorly (as expected from earlier unpublished experiments with MML), they added some new solutions. This motivated one simple additional experiment with the classic k-nearest neighbor (k-NN) learner, which computes for a new example (conjecture) the k nearest (in a given feature distance) previous examples and ranks premises by their frequency in these examples. This is a fast ("lazy" and trivially incremental) learning method that can be easily parametrized and might for some parameters behave quite differently from naive Bayes. For large datasets a basic implementation gets slow in the evaluation phase, but on the Flyspeck dataset this was not yet a problem and full training/evaluation processing took about the same time as naive Bayes. Table 10 shows the performance of three differently parametrized k-NN instances, and Table 11 shows 8 different k-NN-based methods that together prove 29% of the problems. As expected, k-NN performs worse than naive Bayes, but much better than Winnow and Perceptron. The 160-NN and 40-NN methods indeed produce somewhat different solutions, and they are sufficiently orthogonal to the previous methods and both contribute to the performance of the final best mix of 14 prediction/ATP methods.

5.2.2 Performance of different premise slices

Fig. 1 shows how the ATP performance changes when using different numbers of the best-ranked premises. This is again evaluated in 30 seconds on the 1419-problem subset, i.e., Vampire's performance is likely to be better (compared to

Table 10: Three instances of k-nearest neighbor on the 1419-problem subset

Method	Theorem (%)	Unique	Sotac	$\Sigma-$Sotac	Processed
KNN160+m10u+atponly	391 (27.5)	84	0.512	200.33	1419
KNN40+m10u+atponly	330 (23.2)	10	0.403	132.83	1419
KNN10+m10u+atponly	244 (17.1)	6	0.360	87.83	1419
any	421 (29.6)				1419

Table 11: Greedy sequence using k-NN-based premise selectors

Method	KNN160+512e	KNN40+32e	KNN160+512v	KNN40+512e
Sum %	21.7	25.5	26.7	27.4
Sum	309	363	379	390
...	KNN160+128z	KNN160+128e	KNN10+512v	KNN10+512e
...	28.1	28.4	28.8	29.0
...	399	404	409	412

Epar) if a higher time limit was used. To a certain extent this graph serves also as a comparison of the first-stage premise selection (in this case naive Bayes trained on the minimized proofs) with the second-stage premise selection (various SInE strategies tried by the ATPs). Z3 has no second-stage premise selection, and after 250 premises the performance drops quite quickly (12.4% with 256 premises vs. 6.2% with 740 premises). For Vampire this drop is not so sharp (18.1% vs. 12.9%). Epar stays over 20% with 512 premises, and drops only to 15.6% with 2048 premises. Thus, 512 premises seems to be the current "margin of error" for the first-stage premise selection that can be (at least to some extent) offset by using SInE at the second stage.

Table 12 shows for this premise selection method the joint performance (in greedy steps) of all premise slicings, when for each slice the union of all ATPs' solutions is taken. Only 17 slices are necessary (when using the greedy approach), the remaining 8 slices do not contribute more solutions. In general, this union would take $3 * 17 = 51$ ATP runs, however only 28 ATP runs are actually required to achieve the maximum 36.4% performance. These runs are not shown in full here, and instead only the first 14 runs that yield 35% are shown in Table 13. Assuming a 14-CPU server, 35% is thus the 30-second performance when using only one (the best) premise selection method.

Table 12: Greedy covering sequence for m10u2 slices (joining ATPs)

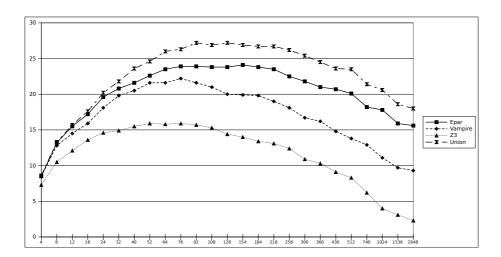| Method	128	1024	40	256	64	24	740	430	...
Sum %	27.2	30.2	32.9	33.9	34.5	34.9	35.3	35.5	...
Sum	386	429	467	482	490	496	501	504	...
...	0092	2048	0184	0218	0154	0052	0032	0012	0004
...	35.7	35.8	36.0	36.0	36.1	36.2	36.2	36.3	36.4
...	507	509	511	512	513	514	515	516	517

Fig. 1: Performance of different premise slices (in % of the 1419 problems)

Table 13: Greedy covering sequence for `m10u2` limited to 14 slicing/ATP methods

Method	154e	52v	1024e	16e	300v	92e	64z
Sum %	24.1	27.4	29.8	31.1	32.0	32.6	33.1
Sum	343	390	423	442	455	464	471
...	**256z**	**256e**	**184v**	**32v**	**2048e**	**128v**	**24z**
...	33.5	33.8	34.1	34.3	34.6	34.8	35.0
...	476	480	484	488	491	494	497

5.2.3 The Final Combination and Higher Time Limits

It is clear that the whole learning/ATP AI system can (and will) be (self-)improved in various interesting ways and for long time.[28] When the number of small-scale evaluations reached several hundred and the main initial issues seemed corrected, an overall evaluation of the (greedily) best combination of 14 methods was done on the whole set of 14185 Flyspeck problems using a 300s time limit. These 14 methods together prove 39% of the theorems when given 30 seconds in parallel (see Table 14), which is also how they are run in the online service. The large scale evaluation is shown in Table 15 and Table 16. Table 15 sorts the methods by their 300s performance, and Table 16 computes the corresponding greedy covering sequence. Comparison with Table 14 shows that raising the CPU time to 300s helps the individual methods (2.7% for the best one), but not so much the final combination (only 0.3% improvement).

---

[28] In 2008, new proofs were still discovered after a month of running MaLARea on the whole MML. Analyzing the proofs and improving such AI over an interesting corpus gets addictive.

Table 14: The top 14 methods in the greedy sequence for 30s small-scale runs

Prover	Sum %	Sum
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+154e	24.1	343
KN40+symst+m10u+atponly+32e	28.6	407
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+1024e	31.2	443
B+v_pref+triv+128e	33.1	471
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+92v	34.4	489
W+symst+128e	35.3	501
B+symst+m10u+atponly+32z	35.9	510
B+syms0+triv+512e	36.5	519
B+all000001+old+triv+128v	37.2	528
KN160+symst+m10u+atponly+512z	37.6	534
W+symst+32z	37.9	539
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+128e	38.3	544
B+symst+m10+vs+pref+atponly+128z	38.6	549
B+symst+32z	39.0	554

Table 15: The top 14 methods from Table 14 evaluated in 300s on all problems

Prover	Theorem (%)	Unique	Sotac	$\Sigma-$Sotac	Processed
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+154e	3810 (26.8)	33	0.157	597.89	14185
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+128e	3799 (26.7)	25	0.153	580.70	14185
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+92v	3740 (26.3)	95	0.167	623.03	14185
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+1024e	3280 (23.1)	206	0.198	649.52	14185
B+syms0+triv+512e	3239 (22.8)	101	0.170	551.90	14185
B+v_pref+triv+128e	2814 (19.8)	36	0.143	401.27	14185
B+all000001+old+triv+128v	2475 (17.4)	50	0.149	367.86	14185
KN40+symst+m10u+atponly+32e	2417 (17.0)	78	0.160	386.90	14185
B+symst+m10+v_pref+atponly+128z	2257 (15.9)	33	0.138	311.74	14185
B+symst+m10u+atponly+32z	2191 (15.4)	43	0.139	304.77	14185
KN160+symst+m10u+atponly+512z	1872 (13.1)	37	0.145	270.58	14185
W+symst+128e	1704 (12.0)	56	0.164	279.34	14185
B+symst+32z	1408 (9.9)	16	0.118	166.09	14185
W+symst+32z	711 (5.0)	9	0.124	88.40	14185
any	5580 (39.3)				14185

Table 16: The greedy sequence for Table 15 (300s runs on all problems)

Prover	Sum %	Sum
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+154e	26.8	3810
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+1024e	30.1	4273
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+92v	33.0	4686
KN40+symst+m10u+atponly+32e	34.8	4938
B+syms0+triv+512e	36.2	5148
B+all000001+old+triv+128v	36.9	5247
B+symst+m10u+atponly+32z	37.5	5332
W+symst+128e	38.1	5411
KN160+symst+m10u+atponly+512z	38.4	5454
B+v_pref+triv+128e	38.7	5492
B+symst+m10+v_pref+atponly+128z	38.9	5528
B+symst+m10u2+atponly+128e	39.1	5553
B+symst+32z	39.2	5571
W+symst+32z	39.3	5580

5.3 Union of Everything

Tables 17 shows the "union of everything", i.e., the union of problems (limited to the 1419-problem subset) that could either be proved from the HOL Light dependencies or by the premise selection methods. The methods' running times are not comparable: the re-proving used 30s for each system, while the data for advised methods are aggregated across E, Vampire and Z3, and across the four premise slicing methods. This means that they in general run in 12*30 seconds (although typically only one or two slices are needed for the final joint performance). The number of Flyspeck theorems that were proved by any of the many experiments conducted is thus 56.5% when Isabelle is considered, and 54.7% when not.

Table 17: Covering sequence (without and with Isabelle) for all methods used

Prover	Sum %	Sum
Epar	38.4	545
B+syms+triv	44.7	635
Z3-4.0	48.2	684
Satallax	50.7	720
B+v_pref+atponly	52.1	740
LEO2-np	52.6	747
CVC3	53.0	753
B+symsonly+triv	53.4	758
B+symst+m10+nominwght	53.6	762
KN40+symst+m10u+atponly	53.9	765
B+syms0	54.1	768
W+symst	54.2	770
B+symst+m10u2+atponly	54.4	772
Vampire	54.4	773
leanCoP	54.5	774
B+symst	54.6	775
B+symst+triv	54.6	776
AltErgo	54.7	777

Prover	Sum %	Sum
Isabelle	41.3	587
B+symst+m10u2+atponly	48.4	687
Z3-4.0	52.0	738
Epar	53.0	753
B+syms	54.0	767
B+symsonly+triv	54.5	774
Satallax	54.9	780
B+symst+m10+nominwght	55.3	785
CVC3	55.6	790
W+symst	55.8	793
KN40+symst+m10u+atponly	56.0	796
B+v_pref+atponly	56.2	798
LEO2-np	56.3	799
leanCoP	56.3	800
B+symst	56.4	801
B+symst+triv	56.5	802

6 Initial Comparison of the Advised and Original Proofs

There are 6162 theorems (their collection is denoted as *Original*) that can be proved by either Vampire, Z3 or E from the original HOL dependencies. There are 5580 theorems (denoted as *Advised*) that can be proved by these ATPs from the premises advised automatically. It is interesting to see how these two sets of ATP proofs compare. In this section, a basic comparison done in terms of the number of premises used for the ATP proofs is provided. A more involved comparison and research of the proofs using the proof-complexity metrics developed for MML in [5] is left as an interesting future work. The intersection of *Original* and *Advised* contains 4694 theorems. Both sets of proofs are already minimized as described in Section 4.3. The proof dependencies were extracted[29] and the number of dependencies was compared. The complete results of this comparison are available

---

[29] See http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/ATPdeps/deps_of_atp_proofs_from_hol_deps.txt and http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/ATPdeps/deps_from_advised_atp_proofs.txt.

online,[30] sorted by the difference between the length of the *Original* proof and the *Advised* proof. To make it easy to explore the differences in the next subsections, the Flyspeck and HOL Light Subversion repositories were merged into one (git) repository, and (quite imperfectly) HTML-ized[31] by a simple heuristic Perl script. A simple CGI script[32] can be used to compare the dependencies needed for the (minimized) advised ATP proof with the dependencies needed for the ATP proof from the original HOL Light premises, and also with the actual HOL Light proof. Such presentation could be further improved by tools like Proviola [64] that explain the procedural proofs, or even by automated transformation to declarative style as done in miz3 [77], and perhaps upgraded into an editable ATP-supported formal wiki.

6.1 Theorems Proved Only with Advice

The list of 885 theorems proved only with advice is available online[33] sorted by the number of necessary premises. The last theorem in this order (`CROSS_BASIS_-NONZERO`)[34] used 34 premises for the advised ATP proof, while its HOL Light proof is just a single invocation of the `VEC3_TAC` tactic[35] (which however brings in 121 HOL Light dependencies, making re-proving difficult). The following two short examples show how the advice can sometimes get simpler proofs.

1. Theorem `FACE_OF_POLYHEDRON_POLYHEDRON` states that a face of a polyhedron (defined in HOL Light generally as a finite intersection of half-spaces) is again a polyhedron:

∀s:real^N→bool c. polyhedron s ∧ c face_of s ⟹ polyhedron c

The HOL Light proof[36] takes 23 lines and could not be re-played by ATPs, but a much simpler proof was found by the AI/ATP automation, based on (a part of) the `FACE_OF_STILLCONVEX` theorem: a face t of any convex set s is equal to the intersection of s with the affine hull of t. To finish the proof, one needs just three "obvious" facts: Every polyhedron is convex (`POLYHEDRON_IMP_CONVEX`), the intersection of two polyhedra is again a polyhedron (`POLYHEDRON_INTER`), and affine hull is always a polyhedron (`POLYHEDRON_AFFINE_HULL`):

```
FACE_OF_STILLCONVEX:
∀s t:real^N→bool. convex s ⟹
(t face_of s ⟺ t SUBSET s ∧ convex(s DIFF t) ∧ t = (affine hull t) INTER s)
POLYHEDRON_IMP_CONVEX: ∀s:real^N→bool. polyhedron s ⟹ convex s
POLYHEDRON_INTER:
∀s t:real^N→bool. polyhedron s ∧ polyhedron t ⟹ polyhedron (s INTER t)
POLYHEDRON_AFFINE_HULL: ∀s. polyhedron(affine hull s)
```

---

[30] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/ATPdeps/deps_comparison.txt

[31] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hol-flyspeck/index.html

[32] e.g., http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=COMPLEX_MUL_CNJ

[33] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/hh1/ATPdeps/aonly_by_length.txt

[34] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=CROSS_BASIS_NONZERO

[35] An interesting future work is to integrate calls to such tactics into the learning/ATP framework, or even to learn their construction (from similar sequences of lemmas used on similar inputs). The former task is similar to optimizing SMT solvers and tools like MetiTarski.

[36] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=FACE_OF_POLYHEDRON_POLYHEDRON

2. Theorem `FACE_OF_AFFINE_TRIVIAL` states that faces of affine sets are trivial:

$\forall$s f:real^N→bool. affine s $\wedge$ f face_of s $\implies$ f = $\varnothing$ $\vee$ f = s

The HOL Light proof[37] takes 19 lines and could not be re-played by ATPs. The advised proof finds a simple path via previous theorem `FACE_OF_DISJOINT_RELATIVE_-INTERIOR` saying that nontrivial faces are disjoint with the relative interior, and theorem `RELATIVE_INTERIOR_UNIV` saying that any affine hull is equal to its relative interior. The rest is again just use of several "basic facts" about the topic (skipped here):

```
FACE_OF_DISJOINT_RELATIVE_INTERIOR:
  ∀f s:real^N→bool. f face_of s ∧ ¬(f = s) ⟹ f INTER relative_interior s = ∅
```

`RELATIVE_INTERIOR_UNIV`: $\forall$s. relative_interior(affine hull s) = affine hull s

6.2 Examples of Different Proofs

Finally, several examples are shown where the advised ATP proof differs from the ATP proof reconstructed from the original HOL Light dependencies.

1. Theorems `COMPLEX_MUL_CNJ`[38] and `COMPLEX_NORM_POW_2` stating the equality of squared norm to multiplication with a complex conjugate follow easily from each other (together with the commutativity of complex multiplication `COMPLEX_MUL_-SYM`). The proof of `COMPLEX_MUL_CNJ` in HOL Light (below) re-uses the longer proof of `COMPLEX_NORM_POW_2`. The advised ATP proof directly uses `COMPLEX_NORM_POW_2`, but (likely because `COMPLEX_MUL_SYM` was never used before) first unfolds the definition of complex conjugate and then applies commutativity of real multiplication.

```
let COMPLEX_MUL_CNJ = prove
 ('∀z. cnj z * z = Cx(norm(z)) pow 2 ∧ z * cnj z = Cx(norm(z)) pow 2',
  GEN_TAC THEN REWRITE_TAC[COMPLEX_MUL_SYM] THEN
  REWRITE_TAC[cnj; complex_mul; RE; IM; GSYM CX_POW; COMPLEX_SQNORM] THEN
  REWRITE_TAC[CX_DEF] THEN AP_TERM_TAC THEN BINOP_TAC THEN
  CONV_TAC REAL_RING);;

COMPLEX_NORM_POW_2: ∀z. Cx(norm z) pow 2 = z * cnj z
COMPLEX_MUL_SYM: ∀x y. x * y = y * x
```

2. Theorem `disjoint_line_interval`[39] states that the left endpoints of two unit-long integer-ended intervals on the real line have to coincide if the intervals share a point strictly inside them. This seems to invite to a case analysis, which is what the longer HOL Light proof (omitted here) seems to do. The advisor instead gets the proof in a single stroke by noticing a previous theorem saying that the left endpoint is the *floor* function which is constant for the points inside such intervals:

---

[37] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=FACE_OF_AFFINE_TRIVIAL

[38] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=COMPLEX_MUL_CNJ

[39] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=Vol1.disjoint_line_interval

```
disjoint_line_interval:
∀(x:real) (y:real). integer x ∧ integer y ∧
  (∃ (z:real). x < z ∧ z < x + &1 ∧ y < z ∧ z < y + &1) ⟹ x = y

FLOOR_UNIQUE: ∀x a. integer(a) ∧ a ≤ x ∧ x < a + &1 ⟺ (floor x = a)
```

3. Theorem `NEGLIGIBLE_CONVEX_HULL_3`[40] states that the convex hull of three points in R^3 is a negligible set. In HOL Light this is proved from the general theorem `NEGLIGIBLE_CONVEX_HULL` stating this property for any finite set of points in R^n with cardinality less or equal to n. Instead of justifying this precondition, a shorter proof is found by the advised ATP that saw an analogous theorem about the affine hull, the inclusion of the convex hull in the affine hull, and the preservation of negligibility under inclusion.

```
let NEGLIGIBLE_CONVEX_HULL_3 = prove
 (`∀a b c:real^3. negligible (convex hull a,b,c)`,
  REPEAT GEN_TAC THEN MATCH_MP_TAC NEGLIGIBLE_CONVEX_HULL THEN
  SIMP_TAC[FINITE_INSERT; CARD_CLAUSES; FINITE_EMPTY; DIMINDEX_3] THEN
  ARITH_TAC);;

NEGLIGIBLE_CONVEX_HULL:
∀s:real^N→bool. FINITE s ∧ CARD(s) ≤ dimindex(:N) ⟹ negligible(convex hull s)

NEGLIGIBLE_AFFINE_HULL_3: ∀a b c:real^3. negligible (affine hull a,b,c)
CONVEX_HULL_SUBSET_AFFINE_HULL: ∀s. (convex hull s) SUBSET (affine hull s)
NEGLIGIBLE_SUBSET:
 ∀s:real^N→bool t:real^N→bool. negligible s ∧ t SUBSET s ⟹ negligible t
```

4. Theorem `BARV_CIRCUMCENTER_EXISTS`[41] says that under certain assumptions, a particular point (circumcenter) lies in a particular set (affine hull). The HOL Light proof unfolds some of the assumptions and takes 14 lines. The advisor just found a related theorem `MHFTTZN3` which under the same assumptions states that the singleton containing the circumcenter is equal to the intersection of the affine hull with another set. The rest are two "obvious" facts about elements of intersections (`IN_INTER`) and elements of singletons (`IN_SING`):

```
BARV_CIRCUMCENTER_EXISTS: ∀V ul k. packing V ∧ barV V k ul ⟹
  circumcenter (set_of_list ul) IN affine hull (set_of_list ul)

 MHFTTZN3: ∀V ul k. packing V ∧ barV V k ul ⟹
   ((affine hull (voronoi_list V ul)) INTER (affine hull (set_of_list ul)) =
    circumcenter (set_of_list ul)  )

IN_SING: ∀x y. x IN y:A ⟺ (x = y)
IN_INTER: ∀s t (x:A). x IN (s INTER t) ⟺ x IN s ∧ x IN t
```

5. An example of the reverse phenomenon (i.e., the advised proof is more complicated than the original) is theorem `BOUNDED_CLOSURE_EQ`[42] saying that a set in R^n is bounded iff its closure is bounded. The harder direction of the equivalence was already available as theorem `BOUNDED_CLOSURE`, and was used both by the HOL Light and the advised proof. The easier direction was in HOL Light proved by theorems `CLOSURE_SUBSET` and `BOUNDED_SUBSET` saying that any set is a subset of its

---

[40] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=NEGLIGIBLE_CONVEX_HULL_3

[41] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=Rogers.BARV_CIRCUMCENTER_EXISTS

[42] http://mws.cs.ru.nl/~mptp/cgi-bin/browseproofs.cgi?refs=BOUNDED_CLOSURE_EQ

closure and any subset of a bounded set is bounded. The advised proof instead
went through a longer path based on theorems `CLOSURE_APPROACHABLE`, `IN_BALL`
and `CENTRE_IN_BALL` to show that every element in a set is also in its closure, and
then unfolded the definition of `bounded` and showed that the bound on the norms
of closure elements can be used also for the original set.

```
let BOUNDED_CLOSURE_EQ = prove
 (`∀s:real^N→bool. bounded(closure s) ⟺ bounded s`,
  GEN_TAC THEN EQ_TAC THEN REWRITE_TAC[BOUNDED_CLOSURE] THEN
  MESON_TAC[BOUNDED_SUBSET; CLOSURE_SUBSET]);;
```

```
BOUNDED_CLOSURE: ∀s:real^N→bool. bounded s ⟹ bounded(closure s)
BOUNDED_SUBSET: ∀s t. bounded t ∧ s SUBSET t ⟹ bounded s
CLOSURE_SUBSET: ∀s. s SUBSET (closure s)
```

```
CLOSURE_APPROACHABLE:
  ∀x s. x IN closure(s) ⟺ ∀e. &0 < e ⟹ ∃y. y IN s ∧ dist(y,x) < e
IN_BALL: ∀x y e. y IN ball(x,e) ⟺ dist(x,y) < e
CENTRE_IN_BALL: ∀x e. x IN ball(x,e) ⟺ &0 < e
bounded: bounded s ⟺ ∃a. ∀x:real^N. x IN s ⟹ norm(x) ≤ a
```

6.3 Notes

The average number of HOL Light proof dependencies restricted to the set of the-
orems re-proved by ATPs is 34.54, i.e., there are on average about nine-times
more dependencies in a HOL Light proof than in the corresponding ATP proof.
This perhaps casts some light on how learning-assisted ATP currently achieves its
performance. A large human-constructed library like Flyspeck is often dense/re-
dundant enough[43] to allow short proofs under the assumption of perfect (and thus
inhuman) premise selection. Such short proofs can be found even by the quite
exhaustive methods employed by most of the existing ATPs. The smarter the
premise selection and the stronger the search inside the ATPs, the greater the
chance that such proofs will end up inside the ATP's time-limited search enve-
lope. The outcome of using such advisors extensively could be "better-informed"
mathematics that has shorter proofs which use a variety of lemmas much more
than the basic definitions and theorems. Whether such mathematics is easier for
human consumption is not clear. Already now mathematical texts sometimes op-
timize proof length by lemma re-use to an extent that may make the underlying
ideas less visible. Perhaps this is just another case where the strong automation
tools will eventually help to understand how human cognition works.

The ATP search is quite unlike the much less exhaustive search done by deci-
sion procedures, and also unlike the human proofs, where the global economy of
dependencies is not so crucial once a fuzzy high-level path to the goal gets some
credibility. Both the human and the decision-procedure proofs result in more re-
dundant ("sloppier") proofs, which can however be more involved than what the
ATPs can achieve even with optimal premise selection. Learning such (precise
or fuzzy) high-level pathfinding is an interesting next challenge for large-theory

---

[43] As long as such libraries are human-constructed, they will remain imperfectly organized
and redundant. No "software engineering" or other approach can prevent new shortcuts to be
found in mathematics, unless an exhaustive (and infeasible) proof minimization is applied.

AI/ATP systems. With the number of proofs and theory developments to learn from available now in the HOL/Flyspeck, Mizar/MML, and Isabelle corpora, and the already relatively strong performance of the "basic" AI/ATP methods that are presented in this paper, these next steps seems to be worth a try.

7 Related work and Contributions

A lot of related work is already mentioned above, and some of the papers cited provide recent overviews of various aspects of the work. In particular, Blanchette's PhD thesis gives a detailed overview of the translation methods for the (extended) HOL logic used in Isabelle. See [67, 43] for recent overviews of large-theory ATP methods, and [71] for a summary of the work done over MML and its AI aspects.

Automated theorem proving over large theories goes back at least to Quaife's large developments [58] with Otter [49] (continued to some extent by Belinfante [9]).[44] Most of the ATP/ITP combinations developed in 1990s used ATPs on user-restricted search space. Examples include the ATPs for HOL (Light) by Harrison and Hurd mentioned above, and similar work for Isabelle by Paulson [51]. Dahn, Wernhard and Byliński exported Mizar/MML into the ILF format [23], created (small) ATP problems from several Mizar articles, and researched ATP-friendly encodings of Mizar's dependent and order-sorted type system [22]. Large-theory ATP reappeared in 2002 with Voronkov's and Riazanov's customized Vampire answering queries over the whole SUMO ontology [54], and Urban's MoMM (modified E) authoring tool [66] using all MML lemmas for dependently-typed subsumption of new Mizar goals. Since 2003, use of (unmodified) ATPs over large libraries have been developed for MML [65] (using machine learning for premise selection) and Isabelle/HOL (using the symbol-based Sledgehammer heuristic for premise selection). A number of large-theory ATP methods and systems (e.g., SInE, MaLARea, goal-oriented heuristics inside ATPs) have been developed recently and evaluated over large-theory benchmarks and competitions like CASC LTB and Mizar@Turing. A large comparison of ATP and Mizar proofs was recently done in [5]. As in here, the average number of Mizar proof dependencies is higher than the number of ATP dependencies, however the difference is not as striking as for HOL Light (a very different method is used to get the Mizar dependencies).

The work described here adds HOL Light and Flyspeck to the pool of systems and corpora accessible to large-theory AI/ATP methods and experiments. A number of large-theory techniques are re-used, sometimes the Mizar, Isabelle and CASC LTB approaches are combined and adapted to the HOL Light setting, and some of the techniques are taken further. The theorem naming, dependency export, problem creation, and advising required newly implemented HOL Light functions. The machine learning adds k-nearest neighbor, and the feature characterization was improved by replacing variables in terms with their HOL types. A MaLARea-like pass interleaving ATP with learning was used to obtain as many ATP proofs as possible, and the proofs were postprocessed by pseudo- and cross-minimization. Unlike in MaLARea, this was done in a scenario that emulates the growth of the library, i.e., no information about the proofs of later theorems was used to train

---

[44] An interesting case is McAllester's Ontic [46]. The whole library is searched automatically, but the automation is fast and intentionally incomplete.

premise selection for earlier theorems. Motivated by the recent experiments over the MPTP2078 benchmark, the machine learning was complemented by various SInE strategies used by E and Vampire. The strategy-scheduling version of E using the strategies developed for Mizar@Turing was tested for the first time in such large evaluation. A significant effort was spent to find the most orthogonal ingredients of the final mix of premise selectors and ATPs: in total 435 different combinations were tested. The resulting 39% chance of proving the next theorem without any user advice is a landmark for a library of this size. While a similar number was achieved in [43] on the much smaller MPTP2078 benchmark with a lower time limit, only 18% success rate was recently reported in [5] for the whole MML in this fully push-button mode.[45] None of those evaluations however combined so many methods as here. The improvement over the best method (proving 24.1% theorems in 30s and 26.8% in 300s) shows that such combinations significantly improve the usability of large-theory ATP methods for the end users.

8 Future work

Future work is mentioned in many places above. Better/stronger machine learning (kernel/ensemble, etc.) methods and more suitable characterizations (e.g., addition of model-evaluation features and more abstract features) are likely to further improve the performance. The prototype online service should be made customizable by learning on users' own proofs. So far only three systems are used by the service, but many other systems can be eventually added, possibly with various custom mappings to their logics. The translation methods can be further experimented with: either to get a symbol-consistent first-order translation (to allow, e.g., the model-evaluation features), or to get less incomplete translations. Proof reconstruction is currently work in progress, a cheap initial approach is just to try MESON with the minimized set of dependencies. When it is ready, unsound translations can be added to the pool of methods as in Isabelle. Training ATP-internal guidance on the corpus for prototype learning/ATP systems like MaLeCoP will be interesting, and perhaps also further tuning of ATP strategies for systems like E.

The power of the combined system probably already now makes it interesting as a complementary semantic aid/filter for first experiments with statistical translation methods between the informal Flyspeck text and the Flyspeck formalization. The cases of machine translation (as in Google Translate) and natural-language query answering (as in IBM Watson) have recently demonstrated the power of large-corpus-driven methods to automatically learn such translation/understanding layers from uncurated imperfect resources like Wikipedia. In other words, large bodies of mathematics (and exact science) like arXiv.org are unlikely to become computer-understandable by the current painstaking human encoding efforts and additions of further and further logic complexity layers that increase the formalization barrier both for humans and AI systems. Large-scale (world-knowledge-scale) formalization for (mathematical) masses is hard to imagine as one large "perfectly engineered" knowledge base in which everyone will know perfectly well where their knowledge fits. Such attempts seem to be as doomed as the initial attempts (in the

---

[45] A similar large-scale evaluation for Isabelle would be interesting. It is not clear whether the current "Judgement Day" benchmark contains goals on the same (theorem) level of granularity.

Stone Age of Internet) to manually organize the World Wide Web in one concise directory. Gradual world-scale formalization seems more likely to happen through simpler logics that can be reasonably crowd-sourced (e.g., as Wikipedia was), assisted by AI (learning/ATP) methods continuously training and self-improving on cross-linked formal/semiformal/informal corpora expressed in simple formalisms that can be reasonably explained to such automated/AI methods.

9 Acknowledgments

References

1. Mark Adams. Introducing HOL Zero - (extended abstract). In Komei Fukuda, Joris van der Hoeven, Michael Joswig, and Nobuki Takayama, editors, *ICMS*, volume 6327 of *LNCS*, pages 142–143. Springer, 2010.
2. Behzad Akbarpour and Lawrence C. Paulson. MetiTarski: An automatic theorem prover for real-valued special functions. *J. Autom. Reasoning*, 44(3):175–205, 2010.
3. Jesse Alama, Kasper Brink, Lionel Mamane, and Josef Urban. Large formal wikis: Issues and solutions. In James H. Davenport, William M. Farmer, Josef Urban, and Florian Rabe, editors, *Calculemus/MKM*, volume 6824 of *LNCS*, pages 133–148. Springer, 2011.
4. Jesse Alama, Tom Heskes, Daniel Kühlwein, Evgeni Tsivtsivadze, and Josef Urban. Premise Selection for Mathematics by Corpus Analysis and Kernel Methods. *CoRR*, abs/1108.3446, 2011.
5. Jesse Alama, Daniel Kühlwein, and Josef Urban. Automated and Human Proofs in General Mathematics: An Initial Comparison. In Bjørner and Voronkov [12], pages 37–45.
6. Alessandro Armando, Peter Baumgartner, and Gilles Dowek, editors. *Automated Reasoning, 4th International Joint Conference, IJCAR 2008, Sydney, Australia, August 12-15, 2008, Proceedings*, volume 5195 of *LNCS*. Springer, 2008.
7. Serge Autexier, Jacques Calmet, David Delahaye, Patrick D. F. Ion, Laurence Rideau, Renaud Rioboo, and Alan P. Sexton, editors. *Intelligent Computer Mathematics, 10th International Conference, AISC 2010, 17th Symposium, Calculemus 2010, and 9th International Conference, MKM 2010, Paris, France, July 5-10, 2010. Proceedings*, volume 6167 of *LNCS*. Springer, 2010.
8. Michael Beeson. Automatic derivation of the irrationality of e. *J. Symb. Comput.*, 32(4):333–349, 2001.
9. Johan G. F. Belinfante. On computer-assisted proofs in ordinal number theory. *J. Autom. Reasoning*, 22(2):341–378, 1999.
10. Christoph Benzmüller, Lawrence C. Paulson, Frank Theiss, and Arnaud Fietzke. LEO-II - a cooperative automatic theorem prover for classical higher-order logic (system description). In Armando et al. [6], pages 162–170.

11. Nikolaj Bjørner and Viorica Sofronie-Stokkermans, editors. *Automated Deduction - CADE-23 - 23rd International Conference on Automated Deduction, Wrocław, Poland, July 31 - August 5, 2011. Proceedings*, volume 6803 of *LNCS*. Springer, 2011.
12. Nikolaj Bjørner and Andrei Voronkov, editors. *Logic for Programming, Artificial Intelligence, and Reasoning - 18th International Conference, LPAR-18, Mérida, Venezuela, March 11-15, 2012. Proceedings*, volume 7180 of *LNCS*. Springer, 2012.
13. Jasmin Christian Blanchette. *Automatic Proofs and Refutations for Higher-Order Logic*. PhD thesis, Fakultät für Informatik, Technische Universität München, 2012. `http://www4.in.tum.de/~blanchet/phdthesis.pdf`.
14. Jasmin Christian Blanchette, Sascha Böhme, and Lawrence C. Paulson. Extending Sledgehammer with SMT solvers. In Bjørner and Sofronie-Stokkermans [11], pages 116–130.
15. Jasmin Christian Blanchette, Lukas Bulwahn, and Tobias Nipkow. Automatic proof and disproof in Isabelle/HOL. In Cesare Tinelli and Viorica Sofronie-Stokkermans, editors, *FroCoS*, volume 6989 of *LNCS*, pages 12–27. Springer, 2011.
16. Jasmin Christian Blanchette and Andrei Paskevich. TFF1: The TPTP typed first-order form with rank-1 polymorphism. Available online at `http://www4.in.tum.de/~blanchet/tff1spec.pdf`.
17. Jasmin Christian Blanchette, Andrei Popescu, Daniel Wand, and Christoph Weidenbach. More SPASS with Isabelle - superposition with hard sorts and configurable simplification. In Lennart Beringer and Amy P. Felty, editors, *ITP*, volume 7406 of *LNCS*, pages 345–360. Springer, 2012.
18. Sascha Böhme and Tobias Nipkow. Sledgehammer: Judgement day. In Jürgen Giesl and Reiner Hähnle, editors, *IJCAR*, volume 6173 of *LNCS*, pages 107–121. Springer, 2010.
19. Chad E. Brown. Satallax: An automatic higher-order prover. In Gramlich et al. [29], pages 111–117.
20. Andy Carlson, Chad Cumby, Jeff Rosen, and Dan Roth. The SNoW Learning Architecture. Technical Report UIUCDCS-R-99-2101, UIUC Computer Science Department, 5 1999.
21. Alonzo Church. A formulation of the simple theory of types. *Journal of Symbolic Logic*, 5:56–68, 1940.
22. Ingo Dahn. Interpretation of a Mizar-like logic in first-order logic. In Ricardo Caferra and Gernot Salzer, editors, *FTP (LNCS Selection)*, volume 1761 of *LNCS*, pages 137–151. Springer, 1998.
23. Ingo Dahn and Christoph Wernhard. First order proof problems extracted from an article in the MIZAR Mathematical Library. In Maria Paola Bonacina and Ulrich Furbach, editors, *Int. Workshop on First-Order Theorem Proving (FTP'97)*, RISC-Linz Report Series No. 97-50, pages 58–62. Johannes Kepler Universität, Linz (Austria), 1997.
24. Leonardo Mendonça de Moura and Nikolaj Bjørner. Z3: An Efficient SMT Solver. In C. R. Ramakrishnan and Jakob Rehof, editors, *TACAS*, volume 4963 of *LNCS*, pages 337–340. Springer, 2008.
25. Jean-Christophe Filliâtre and Claude Marché. The Why/Krakatoa/Caduceus platform for deductive program verification. In Werner Damm and Holger Hermanns, editors, *CAV*, volume 4590 of *LNCS*, pages 173–177. Springer, 2007.
26. Pascal Fontaine, Renate Schmidt, and Stephan Schulz, editors. *Proceedings of the Third Workshop on Practical Aspects of Automated Reasoning (PAAR-2012), Manchester, UK, June 30, 2012*, EasyChair Proceedings in Computing. to appear, 2012.
27. Ulrich Furbach and Natarajan Shankar, editors. *Automated Reasoning, Third International Joint Conference, IJCAR 2006, Seattle, WA, USA, August 17-20, 2006, Proceedings*, volume 4130 of *LNCS*. Springer, 2006.
28. Allen Van Gelder and Geoff Sutcliffe. Extending the TPTP language to higher-order logic with automated parser generation. In Furbach and Shankar [27], pages 156–161.
29. Bernhard Gramlich, Dale Miller, and Uli Sattler, editors. *Automated Reasoning - 6th International Joint Conference, IJCAR 2012, Manchester, UK, June 26-29, 2012. Proceedings*, volume 7364 of *LNCS*. Springer, 2012.
30. Thomas C. Hales. Introduction to the Flyspeck project. In Thierry Coquand, Henri Lombardi, and Marie-Françoise Roy, editors, *Mathematics, Algorithms, Proofs*, volume 05021 of *Dagstuhl Seminar Proceedings*. Internationales Begegnungs- und Forschungszentrum für Informatik (IBFI), Schloss Dagstuhl, Germany, 2005.
31. Thomas C. Hales. Mathematics in the age of the Turing machine. *Lecture Notes in Logic*, 2012. to appear; `http://www.math.pitt.edu/~thales/papers/turing.pdf`.
32. John Harrison. HOL Light: A tutorial introduction. In Mandayam K. Srivas and Albert John Camilleri, editors, *FMCAD*, volume 1166 of *LNCS*, pages 265–269. Springer, 1996.

33. John Harrison. A Mizar mode for HOL. In Joakim von Wright, Jim Grundy, and John Harrison, editors, *TPHOLs*, volume 1125 of *LNCS*, pages 203–220. Springer, 1996.
34. John Harrison. Optimizing Proof Search in Model Elimination. In M. McRobbie and J.K. Slaney, editors, *Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Automated Deduction*, number 1104 in Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence, pages 313–327. Springer-Verlag, 1996.
35. Krystof Hoder and Andrei Voronkov. Sine qua non for large theory reasoning. In Bjørner and Sofronie-Stokkermans [11], pages 299–314.
36. Joe Hurd. Integrating Gandalf and HOL. In Yves Bertot, Gilles Dowek, André Hirschowitz, C. Paulin, and Laurent Théry, editors, *TPHOLs*, volume 1690 of *LNCS*, pages 311–322. Springer, 1999.
37. Joe Hurd. An LCF-style interface between HOL and first-order logic. In Andrei Voronkov, editor, *CADE*, volume 2392 of *LNCS*, pages 134–138. Springer, 2002.
38. Joe Hurd. First-order proof tactics in higher-order logic theorem provers. In Myla Archer, Ben Di Vito, and César Muñoz, editors, *Design and Application of Strategies/Tactics in Higher Order Logics (STRATA 2003)*, number NASA/CP-2003-212448 in NASA Technical Reports, pages 56–68, September 2003.
39. Cezary Kaliszyk. Web interfaces for proof assistants. *Electr. Notes Theor. Comput. Sci.*, 174(2):49–61, 2007.
40. Cezary Kaliszyk and Alexander Krauss. Scalable LCF-style proof translation. In preparation.
41. Cezary Kaliszyk and Josef Urban. Initial experiments with external provers and premise selection on HOL Light corpora. In Fontaine et al. [26].
42. Daniel Kühlwein and Josef Urban. Learning from multiple proofs: First experiments. In Fontaine et al. [26].
43. Daniel Kühlwein, Twan van Laarhoven, Evgeni Tsivtsivadze, Josef Urban, and Tom Heskes. Overview and evaluation of premise selection techniques for large theory mathematics. In Gramlich et al. [29], pages 378–392.
44. Donald W. Loveland. Mechanical theorem proving by model elimination. *Journal of the ACM*, 15(2):236–251, April 1968.
45. Donald W. Loveland. *Automated Theorem Proving: A Logical Basis*. North-Holland, Amsterdam, 1978.
46. David A. McAllester. *Ontic: a knowledge representation system for mathematics*. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, USA, 1989.
47. William McCune. Prover9 and Mace4. `http://www.cs.unm.edu/~mccune/prover9/`, 2005–2010.
48. William McCune and Olga Shumsky Matlin. Ivy: A Preprocessor and Proof Checker for First-Order Logic. In M. Kaufmann, P. Manolios, and J. Strother Moore, editors, *Computer-Aided Reasoning: ACL2 Case Studies*, number 4 in Advances in Formal Methods, pages 265–282. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2000.
49. W.W. McCune and L. Wos. Otter: The CADE-13 Competition Incarnations. *Journal of Automated Reasoning*, 18(2):211–220, 1997.
50. Steven Obua and Sebastian Skalberg. Importing hol into isabelle/hol. In Furbach and Shankar [27], pages 298–302.
51. Lawrence C. Paulson. A generic tableau prover and its integration with isabelle. *J. UCS*, 5(3):73–87, 1999.
52. Lawrence C. Paulson and Jasmin Blanchette. Three years of experience with Sledgehammer, a practical link between automated and interactive theorem provers. In *8th IWIL*, 2010. Invited talk.
53. Lawrence C. Paulson and Kong Woei Susanto. Source-level proof reconstruction for interactive theorem proving. In Klaus Schneider and Jens Brandt, editors, *TPHOLs*, volume 4732 of *LNCS*, pages 232–245. Springer, 2007.
54. Adam Pease and Geoff Sutcliffe. First order reasoning on a large ontology. In Geoff Sutcliffe, Josef Urban, and Stephan Schulz, editors, *ESARLT*, volume 257 of *CEUR Workshop Proceedings*. CEUR-WS.org, 2007.
55. A. Pitts. The HOL logic. In M. J. C. Gordon and T. F. Melham, editors, *Introduction to HOL: A theorem proving environment for higher order logic*. Cambridge University Press, 1993.
56. Henri Poincaré. *The foundations of science: Science and hypothesis, The value of science, Science and method*. The Science Press, New York, 1913.

57. Virgile Prevosto and Uwe Waldmann. SPASS+T. In G. Sutcliffe, R. Schmidt, and S. Schulz, editors, *ESCoR 2006*, volume 192 of *CEUR*, pages 18–33, 2006.
58. A. Quaife. *Automated Development of Fundamental Mathematical Theories*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1992.
59. Alexandre Riazanov and Andrei Voronkov. The design and implementation of VAMPIRE. *AI Commun.*, 15(2-3):91–110, 2002.
60. Piotr Rudnicki and Andrzej Trybulec. On the integrity of a repository of formalized mathematics. In Andrea Asperti, Bruno Buchberger, and James H. Davenport, editors, *MKM*, volume 2594 of *LNCS*, pages 162–174. Springer, 2003.
61. Stephan Schulz. E - A Brainiac Theorem Prover. *AI Commun.*, 15(2-3):111–126, 2002.
62. Geoff Sutcliffe, Stephan Schulz, Koen Claessen, and Peter Baumgartner. The TPTP typed first-order form with arithmetic. In Bjørner and Voronkov [12], pages 406–419.
63. Geoff Sutcliffe, Stephan Schulz, Koen Claessen, and Allen Van Gelder. Using the TPTP language for writing derivations and finite interpretations. In Furbach and Shankar [27], pages 67–81.
64. Carst Tankink, Herman Geuvers, James McKinna, and Freek Wiedijk. Proviola: A tool for proof re-animation. In Autexier et al. [7], pages 440–454.
65. Josef Urban. MPTP - Motivation, Implementation, First Experiments. *Journal of Automated Reasoning*, 33(3-4):319–339, 2004.
66. Josef Urban. MoMM - fast interreduction and retrieval in large libraries of formalized mathematics. *International Journal on Artificial Intelligence Tools*, 15(1):109–130, 2006.
67. Josef Urban. An Overview of Methods for Large-Theory Automated Theorem Proving (Invited Paper). In Peter Höfner, Annabelle McIver, and Georg Struth, editors, *ATE Workshop*, volume 760 of *CEUR Workshop Proceedings*, pages 3–8. CEUR-WS.org, 2011.
68. Josef Urban, Piotr Rudnicki, and Geoff Sutcliffe. ATP and presentation service for Mizar formalizations. *J. Autom. Reasoning*, 2012. `http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10817-012-9269-y`.
69. Josef Urban and Geoff Sutcliffe. Automated reasoning and presentation support for formalizing mathematics in Mizar. In Autexier et al. [7], pages 132–146.
70. Josef Urban, Geoff Sutcliffe, Petr Pudlák, and Jiří Vyskočil. MaLARea SG1 - Machine Learner for Automated Reasoning with Semantic Guidance. In Armando et al. [6], pages 441–456.
71. Josef Urban and Jiří Vyskočil. Theorem proving in large formal mathematics as an emerging AI field. In Maria Paola Bonacina and Mark E. Stickel, editors, *Automated Reasoning and Mathematics: Essays in Memory of William McCune*, LNCS. Springer, 2013. to appear, `http://arxiv.org/abs/1209.3914`.
72. Josef Urban, Jiří Vyskočil, and Petr Štěpánek. MaLeCoP: Machine learning connection prover. In Kai Brünnler and George Metcalfe, editors, *TABLEAUX*, volume 6793 of *LNCS*, pages 263–277. Springer, 2011.
73. Larry Wall. *Programming Perl*. O'Reilly & Associates, Inc., Sebastopol, CA, USA, 3rd edition, 2000.
74. Christoph Weidenbach, Bijan Afshordel, Uwe Brahm, Christian Cohrs, Thorsten Engel, Enno Keen, Christian Theobalt, and Dalibor Topić. System description: SPASS version 1.0.0. In *Automated Deduction - CADE-16*, volume 1632 of *LNCS*, pages 378–382. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 1999.
75. Christoph Weidenbach, Dilyana Dimova, Arnaud Fietzke, Rohit Kumar, Martin Suda, and Patrick Wischnewski. SPASS Version 3.5. In Renate A. Schmidt, editor, *CADE*, volume 5663 of *LNCS*, pages 140–145. Springer, 2009.
76. Freek Wiedijk. Estimating the cost of a standard library for a mathematical proof checker. `http://www.cs.ru.nl/~freek/notes/mathstdlib2.pdf`, 2001.
77. Freek Wiedijk. A synthesis of the procedural and declarative styles of interactive theorem proving. *Logical Methods in Computer Science*, 8(1), 2012.